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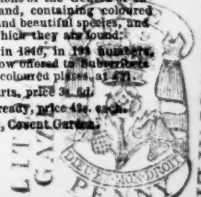
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LONDON, SATURDAY, OCTOBER 24, 1857.

REVIEWS.

The Accession of Nicholas I. Compiled by Special Command of the Emperor Alexander II., by his Imperial Majesty's Secretary of State, Baron M. Korff, and Translated from the original Russian. John Murray.

THE future historian of Russia will find it necessary to refer to this volume, but he will not discover much in it that is either new or important. The main facts are known; some personal details leading up to them are here given in the manner of a French memoir stiffened in the court style; and the whole bears the unmistakeable impress of the imperial source from whence it is drawn. Like all court vindications, produced for the express purpose of clearing reputations, or of influencing opinion in a particular direction, this work is chargeable with exaggeration, and flattery, and dexterous handling of circumstances, and, perhaps, some specimens of the *suggestio falsi* and the *suppressio veri*, too fine to be very easily detected; but it is not the less interesting and curious on account of those traces of caution and reserve which clearly indicate its objects, and bear testimony to its authenticity.

The Emperor Alexander of Russia, who had been over here with us in England after the Peace, and was thought by the people to be a fine specimen of his race, died somewhat suddenly at Taganrog in 1825. The deaths of Muscovite princes have always been regarded with suspicion, especially when they happen unexpectedly. In this instance, the Sovereign was at a distance from his capital, on the borders of the Black Sea, and had been previously in good health. His brothers were scattered at Warsaw and St. Petersburg, and the intelligence of his demise produced a profound sensation, not only in the imperial family, but amongst the ranks of the military, to whom the name of Alexander was naturally endeared by the long war, and the great victories through which he had passed in his time. The generation of readers that has sprung up since those halcyon days of eagles and lions may, possibly, be required to be informed that the Emperor had three brothers—Constantine, the heir-apparent to the throne; Nicholas, afterwards Emperor; and Michael. Constantine and Michael were at Warsaw, and Nicholas at St. Petersburg when the catastrophe occurred which left the throne vacant. The news was communicated to Constantine first, and afterwards to Nicholas, who, with undue precipitation, according to the evidence now before us, caused the oath to Constantine, as the immediate successor of the late Emperor, to be taken by the soldiery. In the meanwhile comes a letter from Constantine, declaring his intention, in conformity with the wishes of Alexander, and in fulfilment of an arrangement between them, to abdicate the throne in favour of his brother Nicholas, and entreating Nicholas to carry the desire of his late sovereign into effect. But the oath to Constantine was still in course of administration, and was being taken all over the empire; and Nicholas, although it will be seen that he was acquainted from the first with the real state of things, was so anxious to observe the most scrupulous honour, and to act with the strictest punctilio towards his brother, that he suffered this dangerous season

of interregnum to be lengthened by a correspondence in which he deprecated the dignity proposed to be conferred upon him, until at last he was compelled to accept it by the overwhelming force of circumstances. Constantine solemnly resigned all pretensions to the throne, and Nicholas about the same moment discovered that there was a plot, or mutiny, in the army for the establishment of a "constitution," a word which, to do the soldiers justice, they do not appear to have very clearly understood, the bulk of them thinking that it meant the wife of Constantine, and that they were called upon to fight for the rights of the prince to whom they had recently taken the oath of allegiance. In this perilous conjuncture Nicholas saw that further hesitation would peril not only the sovereignty of his family, but the safety of the whole fabric of government, and he at once determined to assume the sceptre, and to put down with a strong hand all attempts at a revolution, the seeds of which he had in a great measure sown himself. The event demanded all his firmness and courage. The mutiny did break out, and the incidents of that famous day on which the *Émancipation* was crushed by the boldness of Nicholas in person, supply the principal materials of the volume.

The facts are drawn chiefly from a detailed memoir written by Nicholas himself. Several additional statements and recollections were obtained from other quarters; and the whole has been thrown into a kind of narrative form by Baron Korff. One impression of this narrative was printed in 1848, and another in 1854, with new details. These impressions consisted of only twenty-five copies each. The present, which is the third, edition, contains some fresh letters, and in this form the narrative is for the first time given to the public. The object of publishing it is to furnish true material for history, an object which certainly never before occupied the attention of a Russian monarch. History in Russia has hitherto been the result of an inspiration not distinguished by the fidelity of its revelations, and from Voltaire to Karamsin the same corrupt spirit may be detected with little modification in its character. Karamsin, who is even called the court historian, is said to have endeavoured to be impartial, but his position rendered it impossible. History can never be related with fulness or with honesty in Russia.

Baron Korff says that the Emperor Nicholas would never consent to the publication of this memoir in his lifetime. But if it was essential to the interests of truth, why did he withhold it? A mystery hangs over the entire affair; and the only solution that can at present be put upon it is, that the publication is intended as a justification of the conduct of the late Emperor at a crisis when his position and his proceedings were alike open to grave misconception.

It is now time, having put our readers in possession of the general purposes of the publication, to place before them a few of the particulars. But it is necessary to go back a little in the history.

The Emperor Alexander had always been actuated by a strong desire to abdicate and retire into private life. This sentiment, it seems, had seized upon him long before he ascended the throne, so far back as his boyhood, when he was studying under La Harpe. It developed itself more powerfully in him after the overthrow of Napoleon, when he believed his work done for Russia, and he

longed to devote himself to a religious seclusion. "The burning of Moscow," he said to a Russian prelate in 1818, "has illuminated my soul, and the decrees of God pronounced on our snow-covered fields of battle have filled my heart with such an ardent warmth of faith as I have never before experienced." In 1819 he communicated his wishes to his brother Nicholas, accompanied by the startling communication that he looked forward to him as his successor. He was dining alone with Nicholas and his young wife when this conversation took place. He began, says our narrator, by saying that he beheld with delight the conjugal and parental happiness of the young couple—a happiness which he had never tasted himself, in consequence of a connexion of a different kind which he had formed in early youth:—

"I have, on more than one occasion," concluded His Majesty, "discussed the subject with my brother Constantine; but he being of the same age as myself, having contracted family ties of the same peculiar character, and being animated, besides, with an innate and irresistible aversion to the idea of reigning, has decidedly refused to succeed me on the throne. We are both still further confirmed in our respective determinations by seeing in you an evident proof of the peculiar blessing of Providence, which has vouchsafed you a son. You are therefore informed beforehand that you are destined, at a future period, to be invested with the Imperial dignity."

"The young couple were struck as with a thunderbolt by this unexpected communication, which to them was full of terror. Bursting into tears, they were unable to articulate a reply."

The whole scheme was thus made known to Nicholas upwards of seven years before the death of Alexander; and, even supposing that the subject had never been renewed, it could not be said that he was ignorant of the desires of the Emperor and the heir apparent. Subsequent circumstances rendered it even still clearer. In 1820, Constantine was divorced from his wife, and on the same day a manifest was issued excluding from the throne the issue of any member of the Imperial family who should marry a person not possessing a corresponding dignity. In less than two months afterwards Constantine married a Polish lady. It must have been evident therefore to Nicholas that, whenever Alexander should abdicate or die, the throne must devolve upon him. In 1821, Constantine informed his brother Michael that he had solemnly vowed to renounce the crown irrevocably and for ever. This declaration was followed by practical steps for carrying his resolution into effect. A formal letter was laid before Alexander, by consent between them, from Constantine, praying of his Majesty to transfer the right of succession to Nicholas; and in 1823 the act of renunciation was legally completed by a manifest on the part of Alexander declaring Nicholas heir to the throne. This manifest, strange to say, was never made public, but was sealed and locked up in the Cathedral of the Assumption at Moscow, and, according to the narrative, Nicholas was kept in entire ignorance of the whole proceeding. Granting, however, that he knew nothing of this mysterious manifest, he knew quite enough, from other circumstances, of the wishes of the Emperor and the resolution of Constantine, to make him hesitate before he took any measures for proclaiming the succession of the latter. The whole of the calamities that followed may be traced, in the first instance, to the extraordinary secrecy observed by Alexander, in

respect to a matter which absolutely required publicity to give it force and authority. Why he made a secret of the manifest, and above all, why he concealed it from the person chiefly interested in the result, are matters upon which we obtain no information in these pages. On the contrary, the mystery is deepened by the manner of the relation. The only individual admitted to the Imperial confidence was Archbishop Philaret, who drew up the manifest. It was then enclosed in a sealed envelope, superscribed in the Emperor's handwriting, with instructions that it should be preserved in the cathedral till demanded by himself, and that in the event of his death it should be opened by the diocesan and the Governor-General of Moscow. The instrument was deposited with great secrecy, the Emperor having directed that no publicity or suspicion should be excited:—

"In consequence of this decision, on the 29th of August, when there was no one in the church except the Archbishop, the Sakellarii, and the Procurator of the Synodal Board with the official seal, the Archbishop entered the Sanctuary, showed them the seal, but without exhibiting the superscription of the packet, placed it in the ark, which he closed and sealed up, and then informed all the three witnesses, under pain of disobeying the strict orders of the Emperor, that they were forbidden to reveal to any person whatever the circumstance which had taken place. He did not the least doubt but that the existence of the Manifest must be known at least to Prince Dmitrii Vladimirovitch Galitzin, to whom, in his quality of Military General-Governor of Moscow, authority was given, by the superscription on the cover of the packet, to open it when the moment for so doing should arrive; but at the same time he did not venture to hold any communication on the subject with the Prince, not having received any permission to that effect. It afterwards turned out that the General-Governor had received no directions whatever about the new Act which had just been deposited with the others in the Cathedral of the Assumption; and that he first heard of it after the death of the Emperor Alexander from the mouth of Philaret himself."

We now turn to the issue of this strange history. The Grand Duke Nicholas and the Empress mother were at their devotions in the chapel of the palace at St. Petersburg, when news of the death of the Emperor arrived. The passage is touching:—

"In the Palace, the Empress stood close to the altar, in the sacristy, from which led a glazed door to an ante-chamber. There the Grand Duke also took up his stand, and ordered Grimm, the Empress's old *valet-de-chambre*, in the event of a new *feld-jäger* arriving from Taganrog, to give him a signal by tapping at this door. The mass was just concluded, and the prayer for the Emperor hardly begun, when the signal was given. The Grand Duke quietly passed out from the sacristy, and in the library of what had formerly been the apartments of the King of Prussia, he found Count Miloradovitch, by the expression of whose face he instantly guessed the terrible news."

Leaving the Empress in the hands of her attendants, Nicholas went at once to the guard of the palace, and, taking the oath of allegiance to Constantine himself, ordered it to be taken by all the functionaries and the military:—

"From the church the Grand Duke hurried back to the Empress. She was in her own apartments, overwhelmed with sorrow, but filled with Christian resignation to the decrees of Almighty Providence. Nicholas Pavlovitch informed her that he had already fulfilled his first duty to the new Emperor, and that all the posts on guard, as well as Miloradovitch and many others, had taken the

oath of allegiance with him. 'Nicolas, qu'avez-vous fait!' exclaimed the Empress, with alarm; 'ne savez-vous donc pas qu'il y a un acte qui vous nomme héritier présomptif?' The Grand Duke now heard of it for the first time. 'S'il y en a un,' he replied, 'il ne m'est pas connu, et personne ne le sait: mais nous savons tous que notre maître, notre Souverain légitime après l'Empereur Alexandre, est mon frère Constantin; nous avons donc rempli notre devoir: adienne ce qui pourra!'"

Prince Galitzin confirmed the statement of the Empress, and was almost frantic at what had occurred; but Nicholas still insisted that as the will was not made known, he had only discharged his duty. Obstinately persevering in this course, the business of the government literally stood still. Constantine was at Warsaw, and there being no representative of the supreme power to direct affairs, the autocracy seems to have run a serious risk of drifting into chaos. The occasion was tempting to the disaffected, and a conspiracy was forming itself against the government in the very guard-room of the palace. This conspiracy, and the determined refusal of Constantine to accept the crown, or even to come to St. Petersburg, at last determined Nicholas to relinquish his scruples. The narrator calls this incident "the noblest and sublimest event" in the history of Russia. Nicholas was now Emperor. He issued a manifest announcing his accession to the throne, and describing the circumstances under which it took place. This was on a Sunday, the 13th December, 1825. At a meeting of the council that night the accession was recognised and formally noted. "The Imperial couple," says the chronicler, "retired to rest, and their slumber was undisturbed." The opening of the next section is ominous:—

"The Emperor rose early. He felt a presentiment of the approaching danger; but he awaited it with the tranquillity of innocence and courage."

In the morning he is waited upon by the chiefs of divisions and the commanders of regiments. "By this evening," he said to an old general, "perhaps neither of us will be alive; but at least we will die doing our duty." To the collected officers he observed that he held them responsible with their heads for the tranquillity of the city. "If I am to be Emperor," he exclaimed, "only for one hour, I will show myself worthy of being so."

His conduct in the hour of peril justified this proud assertion. The Moscow regiment revolted, shouted for Constantine, and were joined by the mob in their ignorance. Nicholas saw that a moment's indecision would turn this spark into a conflagration. He took his measures at once, and gave directions for the disposition of troops:—

"He also commanded Flügel-Adjutant Blikoff, then attached to the Secretary's Room, to take steps for having a charger got ready for him. This done, making the sign of the cross and giving himself to the Divine Will, the Emperor determined to present himself in person on the scene of danger. 'Il y a hésitation à l'Artillerie,' said he, as he passed through his wife's apartment, and he did not add a word more, although he internally doubted whether he should ever see her again in this world. She had begun to dress for prayers, when suddenly entered the Empress Maria Fedorovna, in extreme agitation, and with the words, 'Pas de toilette, mon enfant; il y a désordre, révolte.'

"In the mean time the Emperor, wearing the uniform of the Izmailovskii Regiment, and his broad ribbon over his shoulder, just as he had been dressing for chapel, and even without throwing on

his cloak, had descended the stairs to the main guardhouse of the palace."

In the scenes which immediately followed, we have some characteristic illustrations of Russian devotion to their rulers. Nicholas rode out alone amongst the people, and read his manifest to them; and when a report arrived that the Moscow regiment had taken possession of the square opposite to the Senate, he communicated it to the surrounding multitude:—

"It closed up into a solid mass round its Tsar, and a multitude of voices exclaimed that they would not let anybody get at him to hurt him, that they would tear them all to pieces, that they would never give him up. * * * Others seized the Emperor by the hands, by the skirts of his uniform, fell on the ground and kissed his feet. The Russian people on that occasion fully exhibited its innate adoration of its Tsars, that holy, that patriarchal passion which from olden times has given such strength to our Russia. But at the first word of the Tsar, 'My children!' this tossing ocean was tranquillized again, and became instantly calm and motionless. 'My children,' said the Emperor, 'I cannot kiss you all, but this is for every one of you.' He embraced and kissed those who were nearest to him, who were, so to say, lying against his breast; and for several seconds, in the dead silence of those voiceless thousands, nothing was heard but the sound of kisses. The people were sharing among them the kiss of their Tsar!"

One does not know which to admire more—the zeal of the people, or the unction with which it is related.

The account of the means by which the mutiny was quelled, and the new Emperor established in authority, is too much elaborated. The writer, collecting details from different sources, expands his narrative into an appearance of importance which the circumstances hardly justify. The whole description is in keeping with the exclamation of the narrator towards the close of his labours: "It was decreed from the hand of God that Nicholas received his crown, and, when once he had received it, he valiantly defended the gift of God in that fatal moment when hostile violence made an attempt to snatch it from him. Given by God, by God it was preserved!"

The main point of interest in the strategy of the day, by which the handful of mutineers in the square was ultimately crushed, is to be traced to the presence of mind of the Emperor. The Life Guards had revolted and attempted the palace, but finding it occupied by Sappers and Miners, they withdrew in some confusion:—

"The Emperor, who knew nothing of what had taken place, was riding, as we have already mentioned, back towards the Winter Palace. In front of the building of the Etat-Major he was met by the body whose movements we have been describing, with its colours, but without officers, and in complete disorganization. In some degree of doubt, but still without suspecting the truth, he endeavoured to stop the soldiers and draw them up into some order. On his command of 'Halt!' they cried out, 'We are for Constantine!' 'In that case, there is your road,' coolly replied the Emperor, pointing with his hand to the Senate Square, and commanding the troops to make room to let the Grenadiers of the Life-Guard pass between them. The latter, streaming past him on both sides of his horse, soon mingled with the rest of the insurgents."

By this lucky manœuvre the whole of the mutineers were collected into one spot, and their defeat facilitated. It decided the fate of the day. A glance at the close of the action, or rather the flying skirmishes, will sufficiently indicate the nature of the struggle

which marked the day of the accession. After cavalry and infantry had been tried in vain against the revolted regiments, artillery was brought up. Before it was permitted to play upon them, an envoy was sent to offer mercy. They treated his proposal with contempt:—

"The soldiers, evidently impressed by these words, cast down their eyes; but several officers and persons in plain clothes of debauched appearance surrounded the messenger, and in abusive language asked if he had brought them a constitution, using at the same time personal threats. 'I am sent with mercy and not to parley,' replied he, sharply wheeling his horse round and galloping out of the middle of the insurgents, who staggered back on both sides. A volley of musketry rattled after him. Some of the shots scattered the plumes from his hat, and several persons were wounded behind the battery and on the boulevard. "Your Majesty," reported Sukhozanët on his return, 'the madmen are crying "Constitution!"'

"The Emperor shrugged his shoulders and raised his eyes to heaven. All means of conciliation having now been tried and exhausted, the decisive moment was come. He gave the word of command: 'The guns to fire in order, beginning from the right flank: make ready!'

"The word of command, repeated by all the commanding officers in order of seniority, had been given down to the very last—Bakūnin. But the Emperor's heart was pierced by a cruel pang. The word 'Hold on all!' stopped the discharge. The same order was repeated after a few seconds. At last the Emperor gave the word of command for the third time. When Bakūnin pronounced the fatal word, it remained unexecuted. The gunner, who had already twice heard the order countermanded, seemed to hesitate. Bakūnin either observed or perhaps had expected this; he instantly jumped off his horse, darted to the gun, and asked the gunner why he did not fire? 'They are our own people, your Honour!' replied the man, timidly, and in a low voice. 'If I myself were standing before the muzzle,' cried Bakūnin, 'and they gave you the word 'Fire,' even then you ought not to hesitate.' The gunner obeyed. . . .

"The first shot struck high up on the building of the Senate. It was answered with wild cries and a running volley."

The conspirators fled in consternation, and in a few moments the square was empty. They again attempted to reorganize on the ice of the Neva, but the artillery followed, and again dispersed them. The insurrection was at an end.

Bible Studies, Conducted on the Principle of a Progressive Development in Divine Teaching. By J. H. Titcomb, M.A. John W. Parker and Son.

THE English profess to be, and, in a certain sense are, a peculiarly Bible-reading people. To this national peculiarity the excellence of our authorized translation in no small degree contributes. As a literary work it is a noble specimen of English in its most masculine form. Men of taste are induced to read it as a study of language, even when they care little for the dogmas it contains. Mature age and early childhood are alike delighted with the charming pastorals of Boaz and Ruth, and of Joseph and his brethren. The adventures of David seem the type upon which the romances of chivalry were formed; and throughout the whole are scenes and passages of inimitable sublimity, clothed in a language of simple grandeur or touching pathos, which stirs the imagination to its lowest depths, and imprints itself indelibly upon the memory. Whatever may be the critical faults and errors of the translation, and

they are neither few nor unimportant, the language is strong Saxon-English of the best kind—a traditional idiom handed down from the days of Wicliffe, scarcely altered by the translators of the sixteenth century, upon whose labours the last revision in the reign of James I. was confessedly founded. The clergy of the Established Church, forming a large and influential class in society, are required, we believe, to go through the whole Bible at least once every year; many persons read aloud portions of it every day in their families; and in most of our schools it is used as the first book for learning to read.

This general familiarity with the letter of scripture has its advantages; but these are not, practically, so great as might have been expected. From listening lazily to the same lessons read over and over again, or from letting the eye pass over the letters while the intelligence lies torpid, the most stirring words lose their power to move. We recollect once going into a school and hearing a class of infants, of seven or eight years old, reading about the "wheels within wheels," in the prophet Ezekiel. It seems never to occur to the persons who uphold this system, that though the Bible is the best book to teach men their duty to God and their fellow creatures, it does not follow that it is the best book to teach children to spell. The obvious effect is to make the teaching of scripture hopelessly unreal; and so it, in fact, becomes to the vast majority of people. They rest in the outward act of "reading a chapter," in which the sense is left incomplete, or learning by heart some verses, which they suppose to favour their traditional tenets; but as to studying any particular book of scripture, or the whole collection, with a view to trace the argument of the writer, the particular errors which he is confuting, or the system of faith and morals which he desires to establish, this never enters their minds. And yet such persons suppose themselves perfectly competent to pronounce an infallible judgment upon all questions which may arise respecting the most abstruse points of doctrine and morals.

One remedy for this state of things, and in our opinion the most effectual, would be to get rid at once of the senseless division into chapters and verses; for we are convinced, by experience, that they are the greatest obstacle to the intelligent study of scripture. Take an analogous case. Suppose that one of the most difficult and metaphysical of Shakspeare's plays—*Hamlet*, for instance—were cut up into sections irrespectively of the sequence of action or ideas—the divisions into acts and scenes ignored, and full stops placed where commas ought to be. Suppose one of these sections were read each day. When the whole had been gone through, would the reader have any, not to say an accurate, idea of its scope and object? Surely not. He would have been struck by isolated passages; he would even, perhaps, have a sort of instinctive feeling that he had been reading words of deep and solemn import, and his mind would be, so far, raised above the vulgar influence of sensible things. But as to the structure and scope of the drama, or the action which it represented, his mind would be in utter bewilderment and confusion.

This is, in fact, the state of mind of those who read the Bible on the "chapter and verse" system. The sequence of events re-

corded, the connexion between the Old and New Testaments, the arguments of the several inspired writers, the errors which they desired to confute, and the bearing of the whole upon the conduct and responsibilities of real life,—all this is as much a dead letter to them as if it remained untranslated in the original Hebrew and Greek.

We do not hope to see much improvement until the "chapters and verses" are done away with; but, in the meantime, we welcome with pleasure every attempt to lead unlearned readers to perceive that the Bible is not merely a conglomeration of "texts," but a consistent whole, with a definite purpose. And well would it be for the Church of England if the clergy employed the intervals of time snatched from their parochial work in such studies as those of which Mr. Titcomb has given us the result in the present useful volume.

The principle which he proposes to establish is, that God's revelations to mankind have been progressive. The amount of light vouchsafed to the early patriarchs was but indistinct. To Abraham a somewhat clearer view was granted; and the light became gradually more intense and vivid in every successive revelation—to Moses, to Samuel, to David, and so on—till it rose to its meridian splendour in the last great revelation in Christ.

We have all been accustomed, more or less, to acknowledge tacitly some such principle as this; but to trace it with the minuteness and in the detail of this treatise is quite new. Mr. Titcomb's plan is this. He takes one particular epoch—for example, that which intervened between the Creation and the Fall, or that to which the Book of Joshua refers. He places himself on the stand-point occupied by a Jew living at that time, and fixes the points of doctrine which that Jew might have realized, or did actually realize, from the revelation then vouchsafed to him. Here is a statement of his method:—

"Our object will be to trace the progressive expansion of truth *ab initio*; to see it opening out with each generation, in a parallel line with their advancing history—to analyze the Bible, and discover what amount of specific truth was revealed from time to time—how that truth became enlarged, and how it ended at last in the full development of the Gospel Covenant. By which means I feel confident that much will be seen in a new light, and that, by the help of God, fresh lustre will be reflected on their sacred pages.

"The course I propose to pursue, in working out this plan, will be to take up the various portions of divine revelation as they were delivered in their chronological order; either subdividing them or grouping them together so as to embrace certain definite epochs in the history of the Church. I shall then review the whole scope of divine teaching found in them, and bring out the great doctrines or moral lessons as they were most probably understood at the time referred to; ending in each case with a brief summary of the truth thus progressively developed."

The manner in which he executes his task hardly comes up to this promise. The portion of scripture which forms his epoch is first critically discussed. The probable date of its composition, its authorship, its subject, and general scope are next considered; and, finally, the leading facts, dogmas, and points of morality which it reveals are condensed and classified in a table, under their several heads. But it is obvious that some minds would see more meaning in a historical fact or a mysterious type or prophecy than an-

other. For instance, Mr. Titcomb can see in the command that all Israelites should repair to Jerusalem to offer their sacrifices, only a safeguard against idolatry. Another person might recognise in it an adumbration and a pledge of the unity of the Church. Again, the revolt of the ten tribes under Jeroboam is represented as involving only the sin of rebellion and idolatry. Another person would consider it an illustration of the evil of schism, and would fancy he learned from the reiterated reprobation heaped on the head of "Jeroboam, the son of Nebat, who made Israel to sin," the immense guilt of rending the unity of the people of God. We mention these points to illustrate the fact that all such classifications as Mr. Titcomb's must be, in some degree, arbitrary, and dependent upon the opinions or knowledge of the person who makes them. After reading some of these analyses, we fancy that he has hardly got to the bottom of the subject; and we cannot help thinking that to render his plan complete it ought to have included a final analytical table, rejecting all repetitions, and showing what new revelation was *peculiar* to each period. Such a table as this would enable the reader to see the whole extent of the argument at one view. We are here, however, only pointing out how a very useful and satisfactory work might be made still more useful and satisfactory than it is. And perhaps it is, after all, better that such a book should be suggestive and incomplete, in order that the reader may be induced to exert his own ingenuity in carrying out the author's idea to still further results.

The vast importance of the principle of progress in the divine government of the world—the principle which, in one of its phases, it is the object of this book to establish—cannot, in our opinion, be overrated. It serves, if not to reconcile, at least to suggest the possibility of reconciling the omnipotence of God with the existence of evil. These two facts, like the divine omniscience and human free will, though each true when taken apart, seem necessarily to imply a contradiction when placed in juxtaposition. To our limited capacities one appears to destroy the other, and we are after all reduced to the necessity of accepting both without attempting to reconcile them. But we can see that the progressive destruction of evil may be more conducive to the glory of God even than a stationary perfection. At all events this gradual unfolding of the divine will, and communication of the divine nature to man, and man's consequent elevation in the scale of intelligence and moral goodness, is strictly in analogy with God's dealings in the world of nature. Revelation and geology alike tell of a fair creation emerging step by step from chaos, and advancing by a slow process, from comparative deformity and confusion, to order and beauty. They both tell of a seething shapeless mass of mingled earth, water, and fire, separated by degrees, and forming themselves into a crust divided into seas and continents. Upon this spring up at first the rudest and simplest forms of vegetable and animal life. Next, monsters appear, formed only to clear the infant globe of its exuberant vegetation and swarming reptiles. As time goes on the shapeless monsters one by one become extinct, and the more complete and beautiful forms of organic life are seen; and man, to which they had all been tending, for the first time walks an earth prepared during ages of change for his reception. The historic

ages present the same phenomena. Forests are gradually cleared away; the land is drained by huge rivers; the air becomes more and more temperate, and fitted for the respiration of the higher animals; and corn and wine and oil are produced where nothing but cones and acorns grew before. Lions, tigers, wolves, eagles, and vultures, the tyrants of the earth and air, are daily approaching extinction, and their places are filled up by mild and sagacious creatures whose services are useful to man. In human society the same beneficent law of progress is at work. Human tyrants are becoming extinct. Whatever may be the cruel follies of a King Bomba, we must recollect that the whole sum of them would be far exceeded by those perpetrated in one week in one province of the Roman empire. War was once a chronic, it is now an acute disease; and if the pacification of the human race proceeds in the same ratio as it has hitherto done, we may believe that in time it will be completed. The great law of progress pervades nature and human society; the fact that it is a fundamental principle of revelation is now brought out vividly in Mr. Titcomb's work. Does not this identity of design argue the identity of the author of nature and of revelation? This striking analogy may surely be added to those collected by Butler in his immortal argument.

Brazil and the Brazilians, Portrayed in Historical and Descriptive Sketches. By Rev. D. P. Kidder, and Rev. J. C. Fletcher. Philadelphia: Childs and Peterson. London: Trübner and Co.

BRAZIL is a country extremely rich in natural productions, and the accounts hitherto given to the world of that magnificent region have proceeded chiefly from the pen of naturalists. It is the home of the humming-bird, the armadillo, the ant-eater, and other remarkable animals, whilst its forest-vegetation is the richest and most luxuriant on the face of the globe. Spix was attracted into the interior to explore the Brazilian fauna; the flora has had many zealous collectors. Von Martius visited Brazil for the sake of its palms, Gardner for its orchids and other wonderful parasites and creepers of the forest, and the narratives of all these travellers partake more or less partially of the pursuits in which they were more specially interested. The ponderous and copiously illustrated volume before us is the result of a somewhat prolonged visit to the Brazilian empire, commenced in 1851, by two clergymen, of whom the younger, the Rev. J. C. Fletcher, is the spokesman, and a more detailed account of the general customs and habits of the people is given than has been hitherto published. Nearly half the volume refers to the metropolitan city of Rio. Our travellers are impressed on the threshold with the advance that is making there as elsewhere. Nearing the landing-place the sable boatmen pull their heavy boats lustily along, and vie with each other to make for the newly-arrived vessel:

"Instead of the old granite steps, we ascend the wooden stairs at the end of a long jetty. Here our boat has arrived, amid odours that certainly have not been wafted from 'Araby the blest,' and we learn that the sewerage of Rio is a portable instead of an underground affair. The sense of hearing, too, is wounded by the confused jabbering of blacks in the language of Congo, the shouts of Portuguese boat-owners, and by the oaths of American and English sailors. Once clear of this throng, what novel sights and sounds astonish us!

A hackney-coachman, in glazed hat and red vest, invites us to a ride to the Botanical Gardens; a smart-looking mulatto points to his 'Hansom' hard by the Hôtel de France. Before their words are ended, the roll of drums and the blast of bugles attract our attention in another direction. There, in front of the old palace, is drawn up a band of the National Guard, composed of every imaginable complexion, from white to African; and now, as every day at noon, they remove their helmets, listen for a moment with religious veneration to the strain of music which the black trumpeters puff out from swelling cheeks, and then resume, with the exception of the sentinels, their difficult task of loitering in the corridors of the huge building, or basking in the sunshine, until another sound of the bugle shall call them to change guard or fall into ranks at vespers."

Most of the heavy work in Rio is performed by blacks, with astonishing celerity and easy humour. "Carts and waggons," says the author, "propelled by horse-power are now quite common; but for the moving of light burdens, and for the transportation of furniture, pianos, &c., the negro's head has not been superseded by any vehicle." An amusing instance, illustrated with a lively sketch, immediately follows of the coffee-carriers:—

"While we are almost stunned by the sounds of the multitude, we have a new source of wonderment. Above all the confusion of the Rua Direita, we hear a stentorian chorus of voices responding in quick measure to the burden of a song. We behold, over the heads of the throng, a line of white sacks rushing round the corner of the Rua de Alfandega, (Custom-House Street.) We hasten to that portion of Rua Direita, and now see that these sacks have each a living ebony Hercules beneath. These are the far-famed coffee-carriers of Rio. They usually go in troops, numbering ten or twenty individuals, of whom one takes the lead and is called the captain. These are generally the largest and strongest men that can be found. While at work they seldom wear any other garment than a pair of short pantaloons; their skirt is thrown aside for the time as an encumbrance. Each one takes a bag of coffee upon his head, weighing one hundred and sixty pounds, and, when all are ready, they start off upon a measured trot, which soon increases to a rapid run."

"As one hand is sufficient to steady the load, several of them frequently carry musical instruments in the other, resembling children's rattle-boxes: these they shake to the double quick time of some wild Ethiopian ditty, which they all join in singing as they run. Music has a powerful effect in exhilarating the spirits of the negro; and certainly no one should deny him the privilege of softening his hard lot by producing the harmony of sounds which are sweet to him, though uncouth to other ears. It is said, however, that an attempt was at one time made to secure greater quietness in the streets by forbidding them to sing. As a consequence, they performed little or no work; so the restriction was in a short time taken off. Certain it is that they now avail themselves of their vocal privileges at pleasure, whether in singing and shouting to each other as they run, or in proclaiming to the people the various articles they carry about for sale. The impression made upon the stranger by the mingled sound of their hundred voices falling upon his ear at once is not soon forgotten."

A considerable number of pages are now occupied with a history of Brazil, commencing with its discovery in 1498 by Pinzon, a companion of Columbus, and terminating with the crowning of the present Emperor, Dom Pedro I., little of which is very new. The author's vocation leads him chiefly to contemplate the religious aspect of the city, and with the view of showing the vast amount of ignorance and superstition that prevail, some curious descriptions are given of the holy festivals:—

"There is no *fiesta* throughout the year that is more enjoyed by the pleasure-loving Fluminenses than that of Nossa Senhora da Gloria. The evening before, the usual number of rockets are sent up,—probably to arouse the attention of the Virgin to the honour that is about to be paid her on the following day, lest, in the multiplicity of her cares, she should forget the approach of this anniversary; for she must have a very wonderful memory if she call to mind each fête-day at which her especial company is requested, seeing that every fourth church in Rio is dedicated to a Nossa Senhora of some kind.

"Early on the morning of this festival, the approach to the white temple is crowded with devotees in their gayest attire; for there is nothing in this celebration that requires the usual sombre black. The butterflies themselves, and the golden-breasted humming-birds that flit among the opening jessamines and roses around, are not more brilliant than the senhoras and senhoritas of all ages who flutter about, robed in the brightest colours of the rainbow, and with their long black tresses elaborately dressed and adorned with natural flowers, among which the carnation is pre-eminent. They enter the church to obtain the benefit of the *missa*; and happy they who have strength and lungs and nerve enough to force a way up to the altar through the crowds whom nature has clad in perpetual mourning. Once arrived at this desired spot, they squat upon the floor, and, after saying their prayers and hearing mass, they amuse themselves with chatting to the circle of beaux who, on such occasions, are always in close attendance upon the fair objects of their adoration. For be it remarked that most of the praying, as in France, is done by the women; and probably for that reason each man is anxious to secure an interest in the affections of some fair devotee, in order that she may supply his own lack of zeal.

"After patiently displaying their charms and their diamonds for some hours, a thrill of excitement passes through the throng, and salvos of artillery announce the approach of the Imperial party, who, when the weather permits, leave their carriages at the foot of the hill, and slowly ascend the steep path that leads to the church. This has been previously strewn with flowers and wild cinnamon-leaves.

"On some occasions, troops of young girls in white, from the different boarding-schools, are in waiting at the top, to kiss the hands of their Majesties. This is the prettiest part of the exhibition,—the Emperor, with his stately form, and the Empress, with her good-humoured smile, passing slowly through the lines of bright-eyed girls who are not without a slight idea of their own prominent part in the graceful group.

"After the ceremonial in the chapel, the Imperial party descends to the house of the Baron de Marity, a rich Portuguese merchant, who has a fine house hard by, where a splendid collation is prepared, and the evening is terminated by the fireworks and a ball. The pyrotechnic display is on the road opposite his house; and woe betide any unfortunate wight who would induce a spirited horse to pass that way. There is no other road into the city from Botafogo; so that he may as well take a philosophical resolution, and enjoy, as best he may, the Catherine wheels and the fiery maidens pirouetting in the midst of surrounding sparks."

The public announcements of the festivals are ordinarily as follows:—

"This *fiesta* is to be celebrated with high mass and a sermon, at the expense of the devotees of the said Virgin, the Most Holy Mother of Grief, who are all invited by the Board to add to the splendour of the occasion by their presence, since they will receive from the above-named Lady due reward.

"The Brotherhood of the Divine Holy Ghost of San Gonçalo (a small village across the bay) will hold the feast of the Holy Ghost, on the 31st inst., with all possible splendour. Devout persons

are invited to attend, to give greater pomp to this act of religion. On the 1st proximo there will be the feast of the Most Holy Sacrament, with a procession in the evening, a *Te Deum*, and a sermon. On the 2nd,—the feast of the patron of San Gonçalo,—at three P.M. there will be brilliant *horae-racing* [!]; after which a *Te Deum* and magnificent fireworks."

And the tradespeople on these occasions have a quick eye to business:—

"Notice to the *Illustrious Preparers of the Festival of the Holy Spirit*.—In the *Rua dos Ourives*, No. 78, may be found a beautiful assortment of Holy Ghosts, in gold, with glories, at eighty cents each; smaller sizes, without glories, at forty cents; silver Holy Ghosts, with glories, at six dollars and a half per hundred; ditto, without glories, three dollars and a half; Holy Ghosts of tin, resembling silver, seventy-five cents per hundred."

The ceremonies of Holy Week are full of strange contrasts, filling the heart by turns with pain and devotedness:—

"Holy Week, by which Lent is terminated, is chiefly devoted to religious services designed to commemorate the history of our Lord; but so modified by traditions, and mystified by the excess of ceremonies, that few, by means of these, can form any proper idea of what really took place before the crucifixion of Christ. The days are designed in the calendar as Wednesday of darkness, Thursday of anguish, Friday of passion, and Hallelujah Saturday.

"Maundy Thursday, as the English render it, is kept from the noon of that day till the following noon. The ringing of bells and the explosion of rockets are now suspended. The light of day is excluded from all the churches; the temples are illuminated within by wax tapers, in the midst of which, on the chief altars, the Host is exposed. Two men stand in robes of red or purple silk to watch it. In some churches the effigy of the body of Christ is laid under a small cloister, with one hand exposed, which the crowd kisses, depositing money on a silver dish beside it at the same time. At night the people promenade the streets, and visit the churches. This is also an occasion for a general interchange of presents, and is turned greatly to the benefit of the female slaves, who are allowed to prepare and sell confectionery for their own emolument.

"Friday continues silent, and a funeral procession, bearing a representation of the body of Christ, is borne through the streets. At night occurs a sermon, and another procession, in which *anjinchos*, decked out as has already been described, bear emblematic devices alluding to the crucifixion. One carries the nails, another the hammer, a third the sponge, a fourth the spear, a fifth the ladder, and a sixth the cock that gave the warning to Peter. Never are the balconies more crowded than on this occasion. There is an interest to behold one's own children performing a part, which draws out hundreds of families who otherwise might remain at home. There is no procession more beautiful and imposing than this. As I gazed at the long line of the gown-clad men, bearing in one hand an immense torch, and leading by the other a brightly decked *anjincho*,—as from time to time I saw the images of those who were active or silent spectators of that sad scene which was presented on Calvary eighteen hundred years ago,—as I beheld the soldiers, helmet in hand and their arms reversed, marching with slow and measured tread,—as I heard the solemn chant issuing from the voice of childhood, or as the majestic minor strains of the *marche funèbre* wailed upon the night air,—the æsthetic feelings were powerfully moved. But when a halt occurred, and I witnessed the levity and the utter indifference of the actors, the effect on myself vanished, and I could at once see that the intended effect upon the multitudes in the street and in the neighbouring balconies was entirely lost.

"In Brazil, all veneration is taken away by

the familiarity of the most sacred things of our holy religion. At Bahia I learned, through a number of Roman Catholic gentlemen, of an occurrence which took place in 1855, in the province of Sergipe del Rey. It was at a festival, and there was to be a powerful sermon preached on the crucifixion. A civilized Indian, by the promise of *multo cachaça*, (plenty of rum,) consented to personify our Saviour on the cross. His position was a trying one, and at the foot of the crucifix stood a bucket filled with rum, in which was a sponge attached to a long reed. The individual whose duty it was to refresh the *caboco* forgot his office while carried away by the florid eloquence of the *Padre*. The Indian, however, did not forget his contract, and, to the astonishment as well as amusement of the audience, shouted out '*O Senhor Judeio, SENHOR Judeio, mais fel!*' (O Mr. Jew, Mister Jew, a little more gall!)

"Hallelujah Saturday is better known as 'Judas's day,' on account of the numerous forms in which that 'inglorious patriarch' is made to suffer the vengeance of the people. Preparations having been made beforehand, rockets are fired in front of the churches at a particular stage of the morning service. This explosion indicates that the hallelujah is being chanted. The sport now begins forthwith in every part of the town. The effigies of poor Judas become the objects of all species of torment. They are hung, strangled, and drowned. In short, the traitor is shown up in fireworks and fantastic figures of every description, in company with dragons, serpents, and the devil and his imps, which pounce upon him.

"Besides the more formal and expensive preparations that are made for this celebration by public subscription, the boys and the negroes have their Judases, whom they do feloniously and maliciously drag about with ropes, hang, beat, punch, stone, burn, and drown, to their heart's content."

There is much that is good and much that is corrupt arising out of these fantasies. We give an example illustrative of both:—

"The most extensive hospital in the city, and indeed in the Empire, is that called the Santa Casa da Misericórdia, or the Holy House of Mercy. This establishment is located upon the sea-shore, under the brow of the Castello Hill, and is open day and night for the reception of the sick and distressed. The best assistance in the power of the administrators to give is here rendered to all, male and female, black or white, Moor or Christian,—none of whom, even the most wretched, are under the necessity of seeking influence or recommendations in order to be received.

"From the statistics of this establishment it appears that more than seven thousand patients are annually received, of whom more than one thousand die.

"In this hospital are treated vast numbers of English and American seamen, the subjects of sickness or accident on their arrival, or during their stay in the port. There are few nations of the world which are not represented among the inmates of the Misericórdia of Rio de Janeiro. Free access being always granted to its halls, they furnish an ample and interesting field for benevolent exertions in behalf of the sick and dying."

Now for the contrast:—

"Besides the public hospital, the institution has another for foundlings. The Foundling Hospital is sometimes called *Casa da Roda*, in allusion to the wheel in which infants are deposited from the streets, and by a semi-revolution conveyed within the walls of the building. This wheel occupies the place of a window, facing the thoroughfare, and revolves on a perpendicular axis. It is divided by partitions into four triangular apartments, one of which always opens without, thus inviting the approach of any who may be so heartless as to wish to part with their infant children. They have only to deposit the foundling in the box, and by a turn of the wheel it passes within the walls, they themselves going away unobserved.

"That such institutions are the offspring of a mistaken philanthropy is as evident in Brazil as it

can be in any country. Not only do they encourage licentiousness, but they foster the most palatable inhumanity. Out of three thousand six hundred and thirty infants exposed in Rio during ten years anterior to 1840, only one thousand and twenty-four were living at the end of that period. In the year 1838-39, four hundred and forty-nine were deposited in the wheel, of whom six were found dead when taken out; many expired the first day after their arrival, and two hundred and thirty-nine died in a short period.

"The report of the Minister of the Empire for the official year 1854-55 gives the following alarming statistics and the comments of the minister:—

"In 1854, 588 infants were received, in addition to 68 already in the establishment. Total, 656; died 435; remaining 221.

"In 1853, the number of foundlings received was 630, and of deaths 515. (!)"

The Rev. Mr. Fletcher has some admirable remarks on slavery, illustrative of what he terms "social hinderances," not very palatable to many of his countrymen, but of forcible and manly utterance:—

"Slavery is doomed in Brazil. As has already been exhibited, when freedom is once obtained, it may be said in general that no social hinderances, as in the United States, can keep down a man of merit. Such hinderances do exist in our country. From the warm regions of Texas to the coldest corner of New England the free black man, no matter how gifted, experiences obstacles to his elevation which are insurmountable. Across that imaginary line which separates the Union from the possessions of Great Britain, the condition of the African, socially considered, is not much superior. The Anglo-Saxon race, on this point, differs essentially from the Latin nations. The former may be moved to generous pity for the negro, but will not yield socially. The latter, both in Europe and the two Americas, have always placed merit before colour. Dumas, the mulatto novel-writer, is as much esteemed in France as Dickens or Thackeray are in England. An instance came under my own observation which confirms most strongly the remark made above. In 1849, it was my privilege to attend with a large number of foreigners a *soirée* in Paris, given by M. de Tocqueville, then French Minister of Foreign Affairs. I was introduced to a visitor from the United States, who for the first time looked upon the scenes of the gay capital, and as we proceeded to the refreshment-room his arm rested on mine. I found that this clergyman, by his intelligence, common sense, and modesty, commanded the admiration of all with whom he came in contact. A few weeks afterward a European university of high repute honoured him with the degree of Doctor of Divinity. In England he was looked upon with interest and curiosity; but, had he proposed a social alliance equal to his own station, I doubt if success would have attended his offer. In 1856, the same clergyman was ejected from a New York railway omnibus, by a conductor who daily permitted, without molestation, filthy foreigners of the lowest European class to occupy seats in the identical car. When the matter was submitted to the courts of justice, the decision sustained the conductor. There was no attempt to place the case on any other ground than that the plaintiff was a man of African descent.

"Thus far reason and Christianity have proved impotent in rooting out this prejudice, or in doing away with these social hinderances, which, more than slavery, will ever render the black man 'a hewer of wood and a drawer of water' to the Anglo-American, and which, unjust as they are, I fear can never be eradicated. These insurmountable obstacles, it seems to me, like plain providences, point to Liberia as the nearest land where the North-American-born negro may enjoy the full freedom and the social equality enjoyed by the African descendants in the most enlightened Government of South America."

Next week we may probably return to this very interesting volume.

Hassan: or, The Child of the Pyramid. An Egyptian Tale. By the Hon. C. A. Murray, C.B. John W. Parker and Son.

The prodigious demand for new novels at the present day seems to have almost exhausted the possibilities of fiction. The vein of ore opened by Scott has been worked till all the nuggets are gone, and nothing left but washed-out clay. We are becoming too moral and earnest for Lytton Bulwer's Pelhams and Paul Cliffords. One of our best novelists has fairly written himself out. Our great satirist is, perhaps, a little above the ordinary customers of the circulating library. And Miss Yonge and her numerous followers are working the moral engine at high pressure, to the utmost of its powers. The East opens out a new vista. Oriental travels we have had in abundance, of which it is doubtful in which category, whether of fiction or reality, they should properly be classed. But of a novel proper, with Mahomedan hero and heroine, we have seen nothing since the days of Hope and Morier.

This line has the advantage of a certain degree of freshness, and of an almost unlimited command of violent and exciting incident. In a country where a man is one day a pipe-bearer, and the next the commander of an army; and where to-day a lady is a sultana, and to-morrow an unpleasant moist body at the bottom of the Bosphorus or the Nile; nothing can be too extravagant or melodramatic. The novelist need not be restrained by the fear of being unnatural from indulging in the wildest flights of the imagination with respect to his plot and incidents. "The rage of the vulture" and "the love of the turtle" supply him with scenes of "sorrow" and "crime" far more frequent and telling than are to be met with in the ordinary life of the better class of English society; for the romance of the condemned cell and the hulks has been happily tabooed at home.

But familiarity with the East is beginning to breed the proverbial contempt. The Crimean campaign has reduced the picturesque Osmanli to very small proportions indeed; and a certain blue-book about Kars has given most people an impression that a Sergeant-Major in the Guards is more of a gentleman and a hero than a Pasha with three tails. The Georgian and Circassian heroines, on the other hand, have lost weight by being magnified. It turns out that instead of the sylphlike forms gliding noiselessly along the cushioned floors of the harem, they are really women of very animal dispositions, carefully fattened up, like short-horns for the market, till they would suit even Lord Brougham's taste for *embonpoint*.

'Hassan: or, the Child of the Pyramid,' is a good illustration of the advantages and disadvantages of an oriental novel. It is full of exciting incidents, of hair-breadth escapes, of perils by land, and perils by water, and perils by robbers, of dark conspiracies, and of the fall of princes, and the raising of beggars from the dunghill. All this is told effectively and well, and it makes a very entertaining book. But, on the other hand, as soon as we have breathing time to consider and criticise, we begin to ask ourselves is it true that Egyptian Pashas, those consummate blackguards, to use a strong, but the only word which expresses the idea, are

capable of these heroic acts of generosity? Is it possible that the son of a Mameluke, brought up by a tribe of rascally Bedouins, should exhibit in his conduct the refinement and more than the refinement and disinterestedness of a European gentleman, and should be able to engage the affections of a young English lady? Are the fat beauties of the harem susceptible of this pure attachment, and this noble disregard of the conventional maxims by which they have from their childhood been surrounded? We feel that these questions must be answered in the negative; that however accurate the accessories of scenery and manners may be, the novel, as far as its plot is concerned, is not a true picture of life, and that it must therefore be read and enjoyed as nothing more than a romance. The hero and heroine are formed upon the English type, though their names and their dresses are oriental.

Hassan-ebn-Heram, or Son of the Pyramid, is the reputed son of the Sheikh of the Oulad-Ali, a tribe of Bedouins. When a boy of sixteen, he is one day called by one of his companions, *ebn-Haram*, which means "son of shame," or base-born son. Stung to the quick by this reproach, he demands of his reputed father an explanation of his surname, and of the taunt to which it has given rise. The old sheikh tells him that his reputed mother was one day sitting at the base of one of the pyramids, when a horseman with a bundle in his arms dashed up to her at full speed, placed the bundle beside her, and disappeared. On opening it she found an infant, together with an amulet, and some trinkets, money, and writings. She brought the child home to the tent of the sheikh her husband, and named it Hassan-ebn-Heram, in commemoration of the strange circumstances under which it was confided to her care.

On learning his origin, Hassan determines to quit the tents of the Oulad-Ali, and to devote his life to seeking his father. With this view he goes to Alexandria. Here he becomes a clerk in the office of a Turkish merchant, who, after some time, is commissioned by the government to buy horses, to be sent to Constantinople as a present to the Sultan. Hassan's Bedouin knowledge of horse-flesh now stands him in good stead. He discovers the knavery of the horse-dealers, tames a magnificent horse which nobody could ride, and acquires such fame that he is sent by his master with horses to Dell Pasha, who takes him into his service.

At the same time it chanced that an English family, named Thorpe, is travelling up the Nile, and Hassan joins the party. They consist of Mr. Thorpe, a harmless old antiquary, Mrs. Thorpe, his vulgar wife, who despises him and his antiquities, Selden Thorpe, a young Oxonian, his tutor, Dr. Moss, a pedant, and, above all, the lovely Emily, who has just been polished off in a first-rate London boarding-school. Mr. Foyster, the English butler, Mary, the ladies'-maid, and Demetri, the roguish interpreter, complete the travelling equipage, and give rise to some funny scenes of high life below stairs. In the course of the voyage the Nile-boat runs foul of one of the Government barges; the boatmen wrangle and quarrel, and one of Mohammed Ali's officers throws a brick, which strikes Miss Emily Thorpe. Upon this Hassan springs into the barge, throws aside the fellahs as if they were children, knocks down the officer, and swims back to the Thorpe party. Here, of course, is the

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On the way the whole party are invited to breakfast by Mohammed Ali, who happens to be then encamped at a bend of the river called Zaurât-el-Bahr. Mr. Murray seems to have been intimate with the Viceroy, and some of the anecdotes he relates of that wily Prince are worth recording. What a strange picture of the Turkish mind, even when most free from prejudice and bigotry, does the following story present! Emily Thorpe writes to her friend Henrietta Clayton:—

"But to return to our voyage in the dahabiah. I was surprised to find that this Mahmoudiah canal, although cut by the present Viceroy at an enormous cost of money and of human life, through a country perfectly flat, is as winding in its course as a path through a labyrinth. On asking Demetri, our dragoman, if he could explain the cause of this, he answered me by a story—for he has a story ready for almost every occasion. The very same question, he says, was lately put to Mohammed Ali by a French engineer travelling through Egypt. The Pasha, after a moment's reflection, said to the engineer:—

"Have you ever seen rivers in Europe?"
"Yes, sir, many," was the reply.
"Are they straight or crooked in their course?"
"They are generally crooked, sir."
"Who made the rivers?" inquired the Pasha.
"They were made by Allah," said the astonished engineer.

"Then sir," concluded the Pasha, triumphantly, "do you expect me to know and to do better than Allah?"

"The poor engineer had no reply to make to this strange argument, so he took his leave, and went his way."

The next extract illustrates the thoroughly military, and therefore anti-civilizing and anti-social, character of Turkish rule. Physical advantages gained by degrading a people are worse than useless:—

"The attendants having retired, the conversation on general topics was resumed; and the Viceroy explained to Mr. Thorpe some of the projects then floating in his active brain, for introducing various branches of manufacturing industry into Egypt; in reply to which Mr. Thorpe, who, although by no means a political economist, was a man of plain good sense, pointed out to his Highness the difficulties that he would obviously have to encounter from the want of hands (the agricultural population of Egypt not being sufficient to cultivate the arable soil), and also from the absence of the two most important elements of manufacturing industry—iron and coal.

"Ah!" said the Pasha, laughing; "I know all that; I shall have difficulties; what can be done without difficulty? All my life I have been contending against them; I have always overcome them, and, Inshallah, I will do so still! Did you see," he added, with increased animation, "a canal that joins the Nile a few miles northward of this spot?" Mr. Thorpe had noticed it, but had not thought of inquiring whither it led. "Well, then," continued the Pasha, "that canal leads to a large village in the middle of the Delta, from which and from the neighbouring provinces it brings the produce down to the Nile. How do you think I made that canal? You shall hear. Two years ago I stopped here on my way to Cairo from Alexandria, and having determined to make a canal from the Nile to that village, I sent for the chief engineer of the province, and having given him the length, breadth, and depth of the canal required, I asked him in what space of time he would undertake to make it. He took out his pen and his paper, and having made his calculations, he said that if I gave him an order on the Governor of the province for the labour he required, he would undertake to finish it in a year. My reply was a signal to my servants to throw him down and give him two hundred blows of the stick on his feet. This ceremony being

concluded, I said to him, 'Here is the order for the number of labourers you may require; I am going to Upper Egypt, and shall come back in four months; if the canal is not completed by the day of my return, you shall have three hundred more.'

"In relating this story the Pasha's eyes sparkled, and he almost jumped from his sitting posture with excitement, as he added, rubbing his hands—'By Allah, the canal was completed when I returned.' A true story, and one that Mohammed Ali used to tell with great glee."

Arrived at the Court of Delî Pasha, Hassan at once acquires the good opinion and respect of his master, by repeating the scene of the horse-breaking at Alexandria; but his success excites the envy of one Osman Bey, an officer of the Pasha's, who from thenceforth is his evil genius. In the following description of a game at jereed, it will be observed that Hassan is not clever enough, or too proud, to follow the example of Anastasius, in a similar scene of Mr. Hope's very similar novel of that name:—

"Osman Bey no sooner heard it, than, fired by spite and jealousy, he shook his jereed in the air, shouted the name of Hassan, and bore down upon him at the full speed of his high-mettled Arab. Hassan had barely time to avoid the charge by wheeling Shêitan and striking the spurs into his flanks. Still over his shoulder he watched every movement of his pursuer. At length the Bey's jereed sped through the air with unerring aim; every one thought that Hassan was fairly hit, but he had thrown himself suddenly over the right side of his horse, hanging only by the left leg on the saddle, and the jereed passed harmlessly over him. Recovering himself instantaneously, he now pursued in turn, and his jereed struck Osman Bey fairly on the shoulder. The bout being over, Hassan was cantering leisurely away, when the Bey, goaded to madness at having been defeated by one whom he considered a boy, galloped again after him, and hurled a jereed with all his force at Hassan's head.

"Hassan, hearing a horse approaching at full speed from behind, had just turned his head to see what it might be, when the jereed flew past him. The movement had saved him from a serious blow, but the stick grazed the edge of his cheek, and drew blood as it passed. A loud shout broke from Delî Pasha—'Foul, foul! shame, shame!'

"All the fire that slumbered in Hassan's impetuous nature was kindled by this cowardly outrage. Forgetting the rank of his opponent, and every other consideration but revenging the blow he had received, he snatched a jereed from the hand of a sâis standing by; it happened to be an unusually heavy one, but in the hand of Hassan it was as light as an arrow. Striking his sharp spurs into the flanks of Shêitan, he pursued his adversary with such terrific speed that even the grey Arab could not carry its rider out of his reach. Rising in his stirrups he threw the jereed with all his force, and it struck the Bey full in the back, just between the shoulder-blades. The blow sounded over the whole arena, and having taken effect just in that part of the back which is nearest to the action of the lungs, the unfortunate Bey's breath was for the time totally suspended. He seemed as if were paralysed, and after swaying backwards and forwards for a few seconds in the saddle, fell heavily to the ground. Had not his docile Arab stopped immediately beside him, his hurts would probably have been much more serious."

Hassan meanwhile prospers in all that he sets his hand to. He is always the right man in the right place. He detects the cooked accounts of his master's steward. Like another Joseph, he despises all the wiles of a fair deceiver who endeavours to entrap him, and jumps from a height of forty feet into the Nile to escape from her. He leads an expedition against a tribe of Bedouins; and after overcoming them, gives up his share of the

plunder to his comrades. In short, he is a perfect Rustum—an admirable Crichton—an oriental Sir Charles Grandison; and his fame reaching the harem, his master's daughter, the fair Amina—the pearl of Cairo—the coveted bride of princes, though we are not told how many stones she weighs, falls in love with him. We shall not anticipate our reader's pleasure by telling them how he sees her through a casement—how he saves her from a watery grave—how he repairs to the garden under her window, where he is caught by his cowardly enemy, Osman Bey—how he is about to be publicly flogged by the said Osman for violating the sanctity of the harem—how he breaks his fetters, escapes to the desert, becomes the leader of a band of robbers, and rescues the Thorpes from the violence of his companions—how he finds his father and mother, and is restored to the favour of Mohammed Ali, in consideration of his fidelity and skill in unravelling a plot against the Viceroy's life—and how he is finally made a Pasha, and goes through the interesting ceremony of lifting the fair Anima's veil. The reader will ask what becomes of his other love, poor Emily Thorpe. Ah! she comes to a miserable end, enough to deter all young English ladies from falling in love with handsome foreigners. She returns to England, and resides at Bath, where she solaces her declining years by going out to cards and to tea, still, however, cherishing tender recollections of the bewitching Hassan.

This book is pleasantly written, and the interest is well maintained throughout the first volume. In the second it begins to flag, and the catastrophe is rather too much spun out. The discovery of Hassan's father is artificially managed. We know nothing of him till near the close, and we therefore feel no interest in him when he does appear. The sketches of Mohammed Ali are interesting, and, no doubt, truthful, for Mr. Murray was evidently an intimate, and conversed with him on subjects of great delicacy. This is shown by the very curious story about Ibrahim Pasha and the conspiracy against the Viceroy's life, upon which Mr. Murray founds the dénouement of the story.

Cumberland and Westmorland, Ancient and Modern: the People, Dialect, Superstitions, and Customs. By J. Sullivan. Whit-taker and Co.

THE Cumbrian region has of late obtained a due share of the attention of British archaeologists. Mr. Ferguson's book on "the Northmen in Cumberland and Westmorland" has shown how much the Norse element prevails in the ethnography of the district. If he has gone too far in his Teutonic enthusiasm, the author of the volume now before us displays an equal zeal for Celtic interests. Mr. Sullivan has no doubts about the first Cumbrian settlers being Hiberno-Celts. The settlement, as indicated by etymological topography, came in from the north, "extending along the slope of the Pennine, from Castle Carrock, including Croglin and Cumrew, to Culgaith, the end of the garden, where it was stopped by the nature of the ground." The period of this immigration was at least four centuries before the Christian era, and the celebrated Druidical circle, popularly known as Long Meg and her daughters, was probably erected by these Celtic settlers. An additional evidence Mr. Sullivan thinks is afforded by this settlement in Cumbria, that

Albion was explored southwards. The Cambro-Celts came about two centuries later from a different direction, while all other comers were subsequent to the Roman occupation. The earliest Hiberno-Celtic settlers have left traces of their presence in the highest parts of the district, the valleys at that time being avoided, being either pestilential swamps or impenetrable thickets.

"The second Celtic colonists entered Cumbria on the south. Yet they have not left many names in Westmorland, and this favours the opinion that they were proceeding in a great measure by the coast, and in their first movements seeking for districts uncolonized by any earlier people. The Lowther, the Leven, and the first part of Nan Bield, received their names from this people; and Corney, now the name of a river, is derived from the original appellation of the peninsula west of the Duddon, namely, *corn*, the horn. In the central districts of Cumbria, we find certain evidences of conflict with the earlier occupants. The Hiberno-Celts being established at Blencowe, the Cambro-Celts fixed themselves at Penrith. Barco in this quarter appears to have been the battle-field for the contending parties. Nevertheless both held their ground, for, in the neighbourhood of the Peterill, they were separated only by the river. About the foot of Ullswater, which they called the Pool, and thence to Penriddock, little Penrith, ample traces of the Cambro-Celts are likewise found. Helvellyn was named by them, and certain places on the right shore of the lake. Their attempts to pass up the left bank appear to have been checked at Glencoin, the glen of tribute, the place being of course named by the victorious party.

"Farther north, and in contact with the settlers on the 'fell-sides,' we can trace the Cambro-Celts in Cumwhitton, Cumwhinton, and in the name which they gave their neighbours, the Cumrew, or people of the hills, now preserved in the name of a village. Still lower do we find them, at Lanercost, though this may be a much later settlement, as it is unquestionably a later name, and at Torpenhow, as appears from the second syllable; and again in the centre at Derwent and Lowdore."

Other minor colonizations of Cumbria Mr. Sullivan believes to be traceable by names of places, but the two great branches of Hibernian and Cambrian are described as easily distinguished by marked and permanent characteristics of both languages. During the European transit of the Celts, the Cambrian division fell under an influence that altered the initial *C* of a number of words into *P*; Irish, *cean*, Welsh, *pen*. Penrith, for instance, is unmistakably a word of Cambrian origin—*pen*, a hill, *rhudd*, red, the town on the red hill. Penriddock is little Penrith. After the Roman period we find etymological footprints of a miscellaneous colonization of the district. Professor Worsaae has shown that the bulk of the Scandinavians of the east coast of England were Danes. They have left traces of their settlement in Cumbria, as elsewhere, in places terminating with *by* and *thorpe*. Worsaae reckons above sixty places in Cumberland and Westmorland ending in *by*, while in Lincolnshire, the most strongly Danish part of England, he reckons above two hundred places with the same termination. Many of the Danes and other Norsemen may have come directly by sea, but the larger number probably extended northward by land, the Roman roads being taken advantage of in their movements. By these routes also the Angles penetrated into Cumbria, leaving traces of their progress in the names of Plumpton, Hutton, Newton, and other settlements on the line of Watling-street. Along another of the great Roman roads are the names of Aldston, Dufton,

Marton, Bolton, and Orton, and by the Ambleside-road, Clifton, Helton, and Bampton. Inglewood Forest, the wood of the Angles, seems to identify the people who took possession of the locality, while a name like Cumwhitton (*corn*, a valley) seems to indicate their gradual amalgamation with the remaining Cumrew of the fell-sides. We give these detached notes merely as specimens of the etymological and topographical data on which the ethnological history of the district is sought to be illustrated. Inquiries of this kind have a peculiar attraction for antiquarian scholars, but they are beset with many difficulties and liable to many sources of error. Of more tangible value are the monumental records of these early immigrations:—

"Cairns, which are the most undisputed form of Celtic burial-place, were once very numerous in this district; but a great part must have been long since removed. The graves of Norway bear an outward resemblance to the Celtic cairn, but the main cause appears to be that in mountainous countries stones are more easily procurable than earth. Wherever a doubt, therefore, exists as to the proprietorship of one of these mounds, the only certain means of deciding would be afforded by an examination of the interior. The Norse cairn should enclose a stone chest, or wooden chamber, and certainly iron weapons. Of all the cairns described in Hutchinson, not one can with certainty be identified as Norse. There is no mention of iron, a number only contained urns and ashes; and though unburnt bones and corpses have been found, the Norwegians, as has been observed before, burned the body, until at or about the time of their conversion to Christianity.

"Tumuli or barrows still remain in great numbers. As far as any records have been kept of those removed, nearly all must be claimed for the Bronze age, and the main part of those yet standing are essentially of a Danish character. Again, in the description of this class of graves, we have no actual mention of iron antiquities. The cairn called Mill Hill appears to have been a Celtic burial-place, whilst Lowdon How was more probably Danish than Norse. Four different names are found in connexion with sepulchres of this kind; how, raise, barrow, and hill; but the distinction is principally that of age, and the order of the words as here placed indicates the period to which each belongs.

"We have few traces of the Iron age, which is to be regarded as exclusively Norwegian, wherever the body has been burned. On opening Beacon Hill, near Aspatria, an unusually long skeleton was found; but as some of the exhumed antiquities are described as affected by rust, it is possible that the grave was Norse of the latest period. Iron is said to have been found under two cairns, in the excavations at 'Stonerise Camp' in Dalston. Ormstead near Penrith was possibly a Norse burial-place, whilst Thulbarrow in the same neighbourhood (still remaining) is in all probability Danish. But there is no doubt an examination of the numerous tumuli yet scattered over the country would extend and correct our knowledge on this interesting subject. * * *

"Runes are not to be found earlier than the Iron age, and in Cumbria they are still of later date. All those yet deciphered have proved to be Anglo-Saxon. On this part of our subject there is very little to be said, save that in doubtful cases every professor of runes imagines a different reading from every other, and where certainty prevails, the inscription invariably runs thus: 'One person erected this to another, the name being rarely of the slightest importance.

"Memorial stones of various kinds still remain in considerable numbers, the most remarkable of which perhaps is Nine Standards in Westmorland. Several villages called Unthank take their name from monuments no longer in existence, the word being in English *onthink*, and the phrase 'to think

on' still current in the dialect. *Bauta* stones are invariably found in connexion with graves."

The early druidical remains are less remarkable than those of many other districts, but not without special points of interest:—

"The principal monument of the class which we must continue to call simply by the name of Circles, is that known as Long Meg and her daughters. Nearest to this in size and appearance, as far as they have been described, or need be mentioned here, are the Keswick Circle, Sunken-kirk in the neighbourhood of Millum, the Grey Yards near Cumwhitton, and the Currocks near Bewcastle. Even of this limited number of circles, two show appearances of having been the enclosures of burial places of the Stone age. The 'recess' in the Keswick Circle, and certain stones in Sunken-kirk described as an entrance, may very possibly be the remains of chambers. Many other circles commonly called Druidical, were, without any doubt, places of sepulture, though no positive evidence has ever come to light on the subject. Stone circles, wherever they can be identified as burial-places, are not of Celtic origin. It is therefore impossible to say what use may have been made of them by the Celts. The mixed people who succeeded were evidently ignorant of their original purpose, as appears from the general name *kirk* found in Kirk-stones, Sunken-kirk, Currocks, and probably in the name of Carrock Fell, which is of the same indefinite meaning as 'circle.' But even to the latest times the Stone chambers and their enclosures have been the subject of strange conjectures.

"Next in interest to the Circle, but still more inexplicable, is the *man* of the fells. The name, though used by the Celts, has been elsewhere marked as Celtiberian, and this of course leaves the purpose of its erection in doubt. For this name the modern provincialism is *pike*, a word of more extended application. One of the 'pikes' of Carrock appears to be similar to the 'man' of the other fells, but there is another described as funnel-shaped, which is of quite a different construction. In Hutchinson's History of Cumberland may be found an interesting extract descriptive of Yevering Bell in Northumberland, on which stands a hollow pike somewhat resembling the latter-mentioned Carrock. Beneath the Yevering pike the stones were found to bear a strong impression of fire; and here we seem to have a connecting link between the men or pikes of Cumbria and the Beltain. But there is at present very little light to be thrown on this obscure part of our subject."

Very little reliance can be placed on the popular traditions associated with monumental remains. The Cumbrians have many legends of the kind, but of as little worth as similar stories in all countries. The cockney account of the origin of the names of Putney and Fulham is as plausible as most traditional stories of the class. Two laundresses, in days when wooden beetles were used for beating clothes, had only one hammer between them. Each threw it across the river when required, one of them being accustomed to cry, "Put it nigh," and the other, "Heave it full home." Hence Putney and Fulham. The Cumbrian traditions are seldom more worthy of notice than this. There are caves and graves, rocks and mounds, associated with the names of Guy and other Cumbrian giants, some of whom are represented as still extant at the time when King Arthur held his court at "merrie Carlisle." The druidical group of Long Meg and her daughters has many legends attached to it. Some say that the seven small stones are the suitors who vainly wooed Meg; while more philosophical expounders tell us that Meg is a corruption of Mag or Magus, the long stone being the arch-druid, and the lesser stones his followers, who were all petrified for their opposition to the first Christian missionaries. These explanations are usually of origin long subse-

quent to the names, which often are of really remote antiquity.

The most interesting portion of Mr. Sullivan's book is that relating to the Cumbrian dialect. Among other peculiarities, it is said that the dental *th* is not found in ancient words of the district. Kirkby Thore is pronounced still Kirkby Fure, Grisenthwaite becomes Grislefoot, and Thursday is commonly called Furesday. We suspect that this last conversion is not very general, but the absence of *th* in old words is remarkable. The nasal *ng* of English words is quite foreign to the Cumbrian dialect, and it is difficult to make appreciable to the people the difference between it and the substituted *n*. Thus planting is pronounced plantin. This is not uncommon elsewhere than in Cumbria, as are also some of the "euphonic sounds" enumerated as peculiar to the district. Thus, "me nane bairn," "Bet's nuncle," and "the tother day," are examples of euphonisms common in the lowlands and even in the highlands of Scotland. A Gaelic mountaineer says in Sassenach, "her nane sel" (his own self), and "the tae half" is a common Scottish phrase for the one half. This euphonic *t*, as Mr. Sullivan observes, may still be traced in the French "y a-t-il," the *t*, though descended from the Latin flexion, being now only retained for euphony. Some curious points are discussed in these chapters on the Cumbrian dialect, several works relating to which have been of late years published, but we can say more for Mr. Sullivan's ingenuity than judgment on such subjects.

The physical influences determining certain marked peculiarities of dialect in various nations deserve more investigation than they have yet received. Granting that imitation and custom now perpetuate local or national characteristics, the question of their first origin still remains. The changes of letters and sounds during the migrations of peoples and tongues are readily traced in history and language, as when *vir* becomes *baron*, or *dun* *ton*. Etymologists and philologists have examined these changes, but we should like to see the inquiry taken up also by anatomists and physiologists. Meteorological or climatal influences must affect the structure of the organs of speech, as well as other parts of the human organization, in different geographical positions. The high cheek bones of the Scotch are reasonably explained by the bleak winds pursuing up their facial muscles, the development of which produces corresponding growth in the osseous ridges to which they are fixed. In like manner may meteorological or other physical agencies explain the predominance of guttural, dental, and other tendencies in the organs of speech. Moral causes have undoubtedly influence in the transformations of sounds and the creation of dialects, but physical causes have also direct power in determining the moral and social characters of nations. Professor Owen could throw some light on the history of language by his philosophic anatomy as well as Grimm or Zeuss by their learned philology.

The substance of Mr. Sullivan's volume was originally prepared in the form of a series of letters to the 'Kendal Mercury.' This may account for the unsystematic arrangement as well as the popular strain of his inquiries, which are rather addressed to the superficial observer than the educated archaeologist. It is, however, an interesting contribution to Cumbrian literature.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

Cumberland and Westmorland, Ancient and Modern; the People, Dialect, Superstitions, and Customs. By J. Sullivan. Whittaker and Co.
The British Kymry; or, Britons of Cumbria. By the Rev. R. W. Morgan. Ruthin: J. Clarke.
Economy of the Labouring Classes. By William Lucas Sargant. Simpkin and Co.
The Poetical Works of Edgar Allan Poe, with Original Memoir. Illustrated by Pickersgill, Tenniel, Birket Foster, &c. Sampson Low, Son, and Co.
Poems. By William Cullen Bryant. Collected and Arranged by the Author. Illustrated by the Brothers Dalziel. Sampson Low, Son, and Co.
Thorndale; or, the Conflict of Opinions. By William Smith. Blackwood and Sons.
Generalship: a Tale. By George Roy. R. Griffin and Co.
On the Causes and Consequences of the Present Monetary Crisis. Groombridge and Sons.
The Wolf-boy of China; or, Incidents and Adventures in the Life of Lu-Pu-Lo. By William Dalton. Bath: Linus and Goodwin.
"The Fountain Sealed;" a Memoir of Mary M. C. Methuen. By her Mother. Bath: Bimms and Goodwin.
Sketches in Nassau, Baden, and Switzerland. By John Curwen. Ward and Co.
Moss-Side. By Marion Harland. G. Routledge and Co.
First Lessons on the English Reformation for Schools. By B. B. Woodward, B.A., F.S.A. Ward and Co.
Melancholy, and Other Poems. A New Edition, with Additional Poems. By Thomas Cox. Saunders and Okey.
Nothing to Wear; an Episode of Fashionable Life. Sampson Low, Son, and Co.

MR. MORGAN begins his history of the Britons of Cumbria *ab initio*. He tells us that the ark rested on Ararat, and that Noah and his sons settled round the roots of the mountain, and that Japhet, the eldest son, gave birth to Chomr or Gomer, the Father of the Kymry, or Cimbri. The second son, Magog, was the Father of the Magogida, or Scythians; Madai, the Father of the Medes; Javan, the Father of the Ionians or Hellenes (afterwards called Greeks); Tubal, the Father of the Iberians, now called Spaniards; Meshech, or Mosoch, the Father of the Moscovites, now more generally known as Russians; and Tiras, the Father of the Thracians. These seven nations, being derived from Japhet, occupied in process of time the whole North and West from the Arctic Ocean to the Black Sea, and from the Uralian Mountains to the Atlantic coast. After enlarging on the primeval settlements of the Kymric race. Mr. Morgan tells how they journeyed westward towards the setting sun, being many in number and men of great heart and strength—(*Cedeirn*, mighty ones, giants). They came in sight of the Alps, and then part of their migration diverged southward—these are the Kymry (Umbri) of Italy. The others, consisting of the three tribes of the Kymry, the Brythons and the Lloegwys, crossed the Alps. Along either side of the Alps, near the sea, part of the Lloegwys settled; these are the Ligurians of Italy and Gaul. Pursuing their course still further they crossed the River of Eddies, the Slow River, the Rough River, the Bright River (the Rhone, the Arar, the Garonne, the Loire), till they reached Gwasgwyn (Gascony, the Vine land). Thence they turned northward, and part of the Brythons settled in a land they named *Llydaw ar y Môr Ucha* (the Land or expansion on the Upper Sea, Armorica). The Kymry still held onward until they saw the cliffs of the White Island. Then they built ships, and in them passed over the Hazy Ocean (*Môr Tawch*), and took possession of the island. A second colonization of the island took place after the fall of Troy, and the new Kymric settlers changed the name of the country from Ynys Wen, the White Island, or Albion, to Britain. The descent of the British people, Mr. Morgan says, from Troy and the Trojans, was never disputed for fifteen hundred years. The "Island of Brutus" was the common name of the island in old times. The word *tan* is the old British or Japhetic term for *land*,—Britannia (pronounced Britannia, the British *a* being sounded as *e*) is Brut's or Brutus' Land. The term is also of very ancient use in Asia, as Laristan, Feristan, Afghanistan. The only two national names acknowledged by the Ancient Britons are *Kymry* and *Y Lin Troia*, the race of Troy. The Trojan descent solves all the peculiarities in the British laws and usages which would

otherwise be wholly inexplicable. In a similar tone of amusing gravity the whole of the subsequent history of the British Kymry is narrated. We are told, for instance, that Joseph of Arimathea, with Mary Magdalene, Lazarus, against whom the Jews cherished an inextinguishable hatred, Mary, and Martha, the sisters of Lazarus, with their hand-maiden Mersilla, were carried out to sea, and consigned, in a vessel without oars or sails, to the mercy of the elements. After dreadful sufferings they were cast ashore near Massilia (Marseilles), in the South of France. From this city Joseph found means to communicate with his family and friends in Palestine. Forty of them, eleven being his own relatives, joined him; Philip the apostle coming with them. After preaching the Gospel twelve months in Gaul, Joseph and his fraternity were invited by some eminent British Druids who had been amongst his hearers, to Britain. They were well received by Arviragus, and placed under the protection of one of the three great Druidic Côrau (Circles) of the kingdom, in Ynys Avallon. Here they laid the foundation of the first Christian church on record. More plausible is the story of Gladys or Claudia, the daughter of Caractacus, marrying a Roman Patrician, Rufus Pudens, while her brother Linus became the first bishop of Rome. The son of Claudia and Pudens was Timothy, and it was from the house of Claudius that St. Paul wrote his farewell epistle to his son in the faith at Crete, in A.D. 67, the only salutations in which are those of the family of the great British warrior and patriot—Pudens, Linus, Eubulus, and Claudia, with whom the apostle had returned to Italy after visiting their native island. Mr. Morgan cites a long list of "authorities" at the commencement of his book, but the specific details of the history it is needless to say the reader must take on the responsibility of the narrator. That the authorities for earlier periods of British history will not bear critical examination may be well understood, when we find the late Mr. Kemble, in his 'History of the Anglo-Saxons,' thus avowing his deliberate opinions:—"The more I examine the question, the more completely I am convinced that the received accounts of the Saxon emigrations, subsequent fortunes, and ultimate settlement, are devoid of historical truth in every detail." For nine-tenths of the statements in Mr. Morgan's book there is no better authority, and being aware of this, he makes the following frank explanation of the principle on which he has written his narrative. "Common sense points out that in writing history, no stricter evidence than each several era and its circumstances supply can be summoned, or indeed admitted, into court. The application of one indiscriminating standard of evidence to times and states of widely different conditions is an absurdity which can only end in destroying all history whatever—sacred no less than profane; a process worthy of a savage or a Goth, but to which every lover of truth and civilization must oppose a front of indignant resistance." Acting on this heroic principle, Mr. Morgan has given what he calls "a British view of British history," and we can testify that his book is most original and entertaining. It is one of the most amusing historical romances that has been written, containing at the same time some ethnological disquisitions of much interest. The story of the British Kymry is carried down to the most recent times, the volume concluding with an account of the military exploits of the Kymric chiefs, Pictou, Combermere, Nott, and Raglan, and the gallant Welsh Fusiliers of the 23rd regiment, in the Peninsula, at Waterloo, and in the Crimea, one of the original cradles of the race, where "their flag has lately floated in conquest, and where their heroic dead sleep side by side with the tumuli of their Eastern forefathers."

The generalship of which Mr. George Roy's tale treats is of a kind which mastered Marlborough and outwitted Solomon. Many a conqueror, the terror of nations, has been the submissive subject of his own wife. How this generalship is conducted in the humblest spheres of private life is

the theme of this amusing story. Its being written in homely vernacular Scotch will contract the field of its popularity, but English readers will be able to follow the drift of the tale, and will be heartily entertained by many of its incidents. There are also plain didactic morals occasionally drawn from the course of the narrative, with practical conclusions at the close of the book. There is surely a misprint in one of the latter of these. "All wives," says Mrs. John Young, the heroine of the tale, "should beware of seeking to rule their husbands; and when it is necessary for a woman to put her hand to the helm, she should spare no pains to make the world believe it is her husband who is steering." The word "seeking" should surely have been "seeming;" *seeming* to rule being a point of bad domestic generalship, whereas the whole story is an illustration of wives *seeking* to rule their husbands, who might well wish the book put into the *Index Expurgatorius* of household literature.

If age and experience can give financial wisdom, the remarks on the present monetary crisis by an anonymous, but not altogether unknown, writer, ought to receive consideration at the present crisis. In his Preface he tells how he took part in the discussion that followed the publication of the memorable Report of the Bullion Committee in 1810, and was well acquainted with Mr. Ricardo and Mr. Huskisson. For many years he was private secretary to the Finance Secretary of the Treasury, and subsequently Secretary to the Parliamentary Commission of Inquiry into the Revenue of the United Kingdom. Having filled other official posts, and been manager of a bank, and having had peculiar advantages for financial observation, the writer is at least not one who offers his opinions without due acquaintance with the points under consideration. The chief cause of the monetary convulsion which now has shaken America, and disturbed business affairs in other countries, the author thinks is the unhealthy over-activity induced by artificial banking, and the excessive issuing of paper money. "The gifts of the Almighty have in fact been used merely as the foundation on which to raise an enormous artificial superstructure of banks and paper." Gold and silver are scarce, and are supplanted by the cheap substitute, which in time of prosperity and confidence serves as a currency, but in time of trouble is found to be delusive. The Birmingham theory of an inconvertible paper money, to be supplied on the credit of Government, would not remedy the disorder, nor give intrinsic worth to worthless materials, though for a time concealing the real poverty under the guise of artificial currency. Middlemen ought not to possess the great facilities they have been enjoying for carrying on speculations in business, over-increasing the "resting stock," instead of leaving to the natural course of commerce and trade the supply of goods according to demand. Legitimate monetary and commercial transactions would be increased, if it were not for the unnaturally pushed system of mere paper credit and wild speculation, by men utterly unconnected either with manufactures or with commerce. But for the extraordinary and unanticipated supply of gold in recent years, the deceptive inflation of the commercial world would have been long since and more strikingly exposed. These new supplies have formed the cash nucleus for an extended nebula of credit, which has at length proved too vast and diffuse to keep in a defined body, and has broken from its orbit, causing perplexity and panic.

Mr. Dalton's tale of the Wolf-boy of China, or the Life, Adventures, and Exploits of Lyu-Payo, is designed to illustrate the manners, customs, and superstitions of the Chinese. The author does not give his authorities in detail, but he seems to have had access to the best sources of information, and the book will be found attractive as well as instructive for youthful readers.

Although maternal affection may have chiefly prompted the publication of the Memoirs of Mary M. C. Methuen, it is a biographical sketch which deserves to be widely circulated for the objects of

spiritual usefulness. Seldom do personal and private memorials of the kind convey more direct and practical lessons for imitation and study. Gentle, reserved, and amiable, and not without joyous temperament and poetical fancy, this young heart was adorned above all with true piety. The Memoirs contain extracts from her journals and correspondence, especially during the years when in failing health she was travelling as an invalid in this country and in sunny Italy. It is a book which may be instructive and admonitory to young persons under similar circumstances and in the same sphere of life. If it were not that all books of religious biography are in great and constant demand, we might say that a considerable volume has been made out of slender materials, but the diffuseness may not appear to those who are interested in the subject most prominent in the memoir, while we are not surprised at a mother's communicativeness on the brief story of an only daughter worthy of so much love.

Sketches in Nassau, Baden, and Switzerland, by John Curwen, consist of letters written during the summer of 1856, while the author was residing on the Continent on account of the health of some members of his family. They contain some interesting notices of the places visited, and of the customs and manners of the people. Some of the letters were addressed to the editor of a musical journal, the Tonic Sol-Fa Reporter, Mr. Curwen having taken an active part in the movement advocated by that paper for improving congregational singing in this country. His Grammar of Music and other publications are well known to the profession, and the work entitled 'The People's Service of Song,' edited by Mr. Curwen, the harmonies revised by George Hogarth, Esq., is one of the best books of psalmody that have been prepared for public use. The remarks on the popular cultivation of music in Germany and Switzerland form an interesting feature in these sketches.

Moss-Side is the reprint of an American tale, with scenes and incidents of domestic and social life, marked by national peculiarities, while also presenting many points of common and universal interest. It is a cleverly-told tale.

Ignorance of the history of the Reformation in England has left the field open for the insidious and skilful efforts of papal emissaries to re-introduce errors which appeared to have been exploded, and evils from which the Protestant martyrs and reformers seem to have freed this country. To make the young familiar with the history of the Reformation of the sixteenth century is a duty that ought to be more attended to, and the manual by Mr. Woodward will be found a useful help for this end. It is in the form of a brief and simple narrative, to the several chapters of which are appended questions for examination. Not much is said of doctrinal points, but the chief historical events connected with the English Reformation are clearly stated. Cheap reprints of selected portions of 'Fox's Book of Martyrs' would be of good service in the present day, if circulated wide in England.

New Editions.

The Odyssey of Homer. Translated according to the Greek. By George Chapman. With Introduction and Notes, by Richard Hooper, M.A., F.S.A. John Russell Smith.

Recreations of Christopher North. Vol. II. Blackwood and Sons.

The Private Life of an Eastern King. By William Knighton. New Edition, Revised. Routledge and Co.

Men of Capital. By Mrs. Gore. J. Blackwood.

We have already noticed Mr. Hooper's valuable edition of Chapman's *Iliad*. He has now brought out the *Odyssey*, and this is the first reprint since the folio which appeared in the author's lifetime, and which is now extremely scarce and expensive. It is a great boon to the student of English poetry. In the opinion of Coleridge, Chapman's version is the most Homeric translation of Homer in existence; and of his *Iliad* and *Odyssey* he prefers the latter. It is certainly written with greater care, and the verse is decasyllabic, and not in the ballad metre of his *Iliad*. This metre was preferred by Coleridge; but in our opinion it is

not an improvement. The character of the long and loose hexameter verse appears to us to be best rendered in the metre of our early metrical romances. But Chapman's decasyllabic verse is very unlike the heroic metre of Dryden and Pope. It more resembles that of Chaucer. The sense is carried from line to line, and often breaks off in the middle of a verse, or at the end of the first line of the couplet; and thus a vigour and natural flow are obtained which are characteristic of the original, but which are totally lost in Pope's elaborate epigrams. Prefixed are an introduction and a sketch of Chapman's life, for the benefit of such persons as may not happen to possess the *Iliad*. The glossarial notes are at once brief and satisfactory. We trust that this well-timed reprint may be the means of rendering popular a poem which was styled by Coleridge "the oldest and the finest romance that has ever been written."

The new edition of the *Recreations* of Christopher North is now complete in two volumes, the ninth and tenth of the collected works of Professor Wilson, edited by his son-in-law, Professor Ferrier. May-day, Sacred Poetry, Christopher in his Aviary, Dr. Kitchiner, Soliloquy on the Seasons, A Few Words on the Poet Thomson, The Snowball Bicker of Pedmont, Christmas Dreams, Our Winter Quarters, and Stroll to Grassmere, are the papers in this volume, the titles of which may recall pleasant recollections to old readers of 'Blackwood.' Long ago the writer has obtained the renown which was yet but a secondary object of his ambition and labours. The closing words of the *L'Envoi* to the 'Recreations' have been abundantly fulfilled, and grateful is the memory of Christopher North. "Posthumous Fame! proud words—yet may they be uttered in a humble spirit. The common lot of man is, after death—oblivion. Yet genius, however small its sphere, if conversant with the conditions of the human heart, may vivify with indestructible life some happy delineations, that shall continue to be held dear by successive sorrowers in this vale of tears. If the name of the delineator continue to have something sacred in its sound—obscure to the many as it may be, or non-existent—the hope of such posthumous fame is sufficient to one who overrates not his own endowments. And as the hope has its root in love and sympathy, he who by his writings has inspired towards himself, when in life, some of these feelings in the hearts of not a few who never saw his face, seems to be justified in believing that even after final obliteration of *Hic jacet* from his tombstone his memory will be regarded with something of the same affection in his REMAINS." Appended to the *Recreations*, as being harmonious in tone and spirit, are Remarks on the Scenery of the Highlands, first published as a preface to Swan's 'Select Views of the Lakes of Scotland,' in 1836. It is a capital essay on the subject on which Wilson of all others excelled—the description of the scenes of his native land. These remarks are rich in grand and beautiful sketches of Scottish scenery. So also are the papers entitled Christopher in his Aviary, meaning the free open expanse of nature—papers to be read with delight by naturalists as well as by lovers of nature and admirers of poetry and eloquence. The healthy cheerful humour of The Snowball Bicker, and the review of Dr. Kitchiner's Oracle, will be relished by those who are less able to appreciate the critical and descriptive portions of these charming miscellanies.

It was in 1855 that the Memoirs of the Private Life of an Eastern King first appeared. The narrative was compiled by Mr. Knighton, author of 'Tropical Sketches,' and 'Forest Life in Ceylon,' from the notes and recollections of a European member of the household of Nussir-u-deen, the second king of Oude, the uncle of the last king. The member of the household lived for three years and a half in the court of Lucknow, and remarkable are the revelations he gives of what he there witnessed. Although the name of the narrator was withheld, the statements on the face of them bore marks of authenticity, and many independent testimonies have been since given to their accuracy. The author is now residing in this country, as are also

several of the personages named in the book, but no modification has been required of any of the details of the narrative. It is a simple, straightforward, and lively account of the inner life of the palace as seen by the writer, with incidental notices of the condition of the city of Lucknow and the people of the country. Oude was not annexed in 1855 when the book was published. The following words in the preface derive a significance from the events that have since occurred. "That Oude is one of the most miserably governed countries under heaven is no secret; and that it would be a blessing to its numerous inhabitants were the Indian government to do for it what has been so well done for the Punjab, every one will admit. I have not written a political disquisition, but a personal narrative." This personal narrative, however, throws more light on the history of the independent kingdom of Oude than many volumes of formal political disquisition could have done. It is needless to say that the account of Lucknow will now be read with increased interest. The work has already passed through several editions, and recent events will secure for it a wider and more permanent popularity. In an appendix to the third edition, also published before the annexation of Oude had been resolved on, the author quotes from contemporary documents some statements illustrative of the state of the country, to show that it had gone on from bad to worse, though the personal character of the reigning monarch was somewhat less disreputable. The people of Lucknow were still amused with processions and military shows, whilst the provinces were a prey to anarchy and confusion. And the author adds, "Could we lift the veil from the palace of to-day, as has been done from the palace of twenty years ago, we should find no doubt the same vices and the same frivolities—the same mixture of narrow-minded caprice, unbridled licence, fitful generosity, and unmitigated selfishness." A new epoch in the history of Oude will commence from the year of the mutiny of the Bengal army, and this book will prove a valuable memorial of the times of the old native régime.

Mrs. Gore's 'Men of Capital,' is the old story of 'The Two Aristocracies,' that of birth and of wealth, in their schemings, rivalries, conflicts, and developments. The evil consequences of the mercenary motives connected with ambition and lust of wealth, are exposed in one of the two tales of which the volume consists, while the second tale represents the man of capital in some of the more dignified and estimable aspects in which he is capable of appearing. Many of the scenes in both stories are graphic and truthful, and exhibit certain well-marked phases in English life and character. The book has the faults and the merits common to all Mrs. Gore's writings, but this we may say, that few of the cheap railway volumes of fiction will afford more entertaining reading than the present number of Blackwood's London Library.

List of New Books.

- Adam's (H. G.) New Testament Verses, illustrated, cl., 2s. 6d.
 Alkman's (Rev. J. L.) Evenings at Calvary, post 8vo, cl., 3s. 6d.
 Aln's (T.) Old Bachelor, 2nd edit., fcp. 8vo, cl., 4s.
 Barclay's (A. W.) Manual of Medical Diagnosis, fcp. 8vo, 8s. 6d.
 Barclay's (Miss M. M.) Letters from Cannes and Nice, 8vo, 12s.
 Bryant's (W. E.) Poetical Works, illustrated, 8vo, cl., 41s.
 Cagney's (Rev. J.) Earnest Christianity, post 8vo, cl., 4s. 6d.
 Caines (The Rev. J.) The Present Monetary Crisis, post 8vo, cl., 3s.
 Clark's (Hyde) Colonization, &c., in Our Indian Empire, 8vo, 5s.
 Cox's (T.) Melancholy, and other Poems, new ed., 8vo, cl., 6s.
 Craik's (J. M.) Riverston, 3 vols., post 8vo, cl., 41 11s. 6d.
 Debit and Credit, 2 vols., post 8vo, cl., 8s.
 Falconer's (W.) Shipwreck, illustrated, small 4to, 12s. 6d.
 Kenneth Borne, 18mo, cl., 2s. 6d.
 Life of Gustavus Adolphus, 12mo, cl., 2s. 6d.
 McArthur's (Dr. C.) Scale of Medicines, 12mo, cl., new ed., 2s. 6d.
 Major's Extracts from Virgil and Ovid's Fasti, 12mo, cl., 3s. 6d.
 Mann's Educational Tour, fcp. 8vo, 4th ed., 2s. 6d.
 Memories of Bethany, 12mo, cl., new ed., 3s. 6d.
 Metropolis of the Water Cure, 8vo, bds., 2s. 6d.
 Mulder's (C. J.) Chemistry of Wine, edited by B. Jones, cl., 6s.
 Parry's Annual, 1858, cl., 5s.
 Plumtree's Correspondence, 12mo, cl., 2nd ed., 6s.
 Po's (E. A.) Poetical Works, illustrated, 8vo, cl., 41s.
 Powell's (J. H.) Phases of Thought, &c., cl., 2s. 6d.; gilt, 3s. 6d.
 Ray's (G.) G-menatship, fcp. 8vo, cl., 2s. 6d.
 Rice's (W.) Tiger Shooting in India, royal 8vo, cl., 41s.
 The King (The) fcp. cl., 4s. 6d.
 Robertson's (P. W.) Sermons, 3rd series, post 8vo, cl., 9s.
 Smith's (W. O.) Chorodade, post 8vo, cl., 10s. 6d.
 Taylor's (W. C.) India, 3rd ed., 8vo, cl., 7s. 6d.
 The Courser's Annual Remembrancer, 1857, 8vo, cl., 41s.
 Wallace's (T.) Devotional Retirement, post 8vo, cl., 5s.

Walpole's (H.) Letters, Vol. V., 8vo, cl., 10s. 6d.
 Wilson's Works, post 8vo, cl., Vol. X., 6s.
 Woolf's Algebra, by Lund, new ed., 8vo, cl., 12s. 6d.

ARTICLES AND COMMUNICATIONS.

SCIENTIFIC MISSION TO INDIA.

(From 'Galignani's Messenger'.)

AN important paper has just been read to the Academy of Sciences on a mission to India and Upper Asia in 1854 by the King of Prussia and the East India Company. The members of the mission consisted of three brothers, MM. Hermann, Adolphus, and Robert Schlagintweit, two of whom—MM. Hermann and Robert—returned in June last; the third, M. Adolphus, is still among the Himalaya mountains, and is expected soon to return *via* the Punjab and Bombay. During the winter of 1854-5 these enterprising travellers visited the region lying between Bombay and Madras; in the following summer M. Hermann explored the Eastern parts of the Himalaya, the Sikkim, Bhootan, and Kossia mountains, where he measured the altitude of several peaks. The highest of all the summits known throughout the world appears by his measurements to be the Gahoorishanka, situated in the eastern portion of Nepal; the same announced as such by Colonel Waugh, but called by him Mount Everest, because he had been unable to ascertain its real name in the plains of Hindostan, where he effected his measurement. This peak is somewhat more than 29,000 English feet in height, and bears another name in Thibet, where it is called Chingopamari. The other two brothers, MM. Adolphus and Robert, penetrated by different roads into the central parts of the Himalaya, Kumaon, and Gurwahl: they then visited Thibet in disguise, entered the great commercial station of Gartok, explored the environs of Lake Mansarowr, and that remarkable crest which separates the waters of the Indus from those of the Dihong, often erroneously called the Barhamputra. They ascended the Ibi Gamine, 22,260 feet in height, an altitude never before attained in any part of the world. After having been separated from each other for a space of fourteen months, during which M. Robert ascertained that the tableland of Amarkantak, in Central India, which is generally stated to be 8000 feet above the level of the sea, is not more than 3300 feet in height, the three brothers again met at Simla, previous to commencing the operations intended for the summer of 1856. M. Adolphus, on leaving that place, crossed the Himalaya, went over Thibet, Balistan, and visited the interesting spot where several mountain crests meet, and the Hindookoosh joins the range lying to the north of India. He then returned to the Punjab through the valley of Kashmere. MM. Hermann and Robert proceeded to Ladak by different routes. Under good disguises, they were enabled to penetrate into Turkistan proper, by crossing the Karakorum and the Kuenlun mountains, and descending into the great valley of Yarkande, a region never visited before, not even by Marco Polo. It is a vast depression of between 4000 and 3000 feet, separating the Kuenlun, on the northern frontier of India, from the Syan-Chane, or mountains of Central Asia, on the southern border of Russia. They then returned to Ladak, and entered the Punjab by different routes through Kashmere. After a two years' negotiation, M. Hermann was, at the commencement of 1857, admitted into Nepal, when he determined the altitudes of the Machipora and Mount Yassa, which have hitherto been vaguely called the Dhawalagery, which means nothing but "snowy crests," and is applicable to all snow-capped mountains. M. Robert proceeded to Bombay through Seinde, Kutch, and Guzerat, where he surveyed the chain called the Salt Range, and determined the changes effected in the course of centuries in the course of several rivers. Before returning to Europe he stayed three months in Ceylon. M. Adolphus visited various parts of the Punjab and Cabool, previous to returning to the Himalaya, where he

still is. The chief results obtained from this careful exploration of Asia are the following:—The Himalaya mountains everywhere exercise a decided influence over all the elements of the magnetic force; the declination everywhere presents a slight deviation, causing the needle to converge towards the central parts of this enormous mass, and the magnetic intensity is greater than it would be anywhere else under an equal latitude. In the south of India the increase of the magnetic intensity from south to north is extremely rapid. The lines of equal magnetic intensity have a remarkable form, similar and perhaps parallel to those of certain groups of isothermal lines. The three travellers have collected all the materials necessary to ascertain this important fact. Irregular local variations in terrestrial magnetism are rare in those regions. In the Deccan and Behar the rocks are magnetic. On the Himalaya, at altitudes of 17,000, and even 20,000 feet, the daily maximum and minimum variations of the barometer occurred nearly about the same hours as in the plains below. Again, at the above altitudes, the inversion of the curves of daily variation which is met with on the Alps does not take place. At the altitude of 17,000 feet the diminution of transparency produced by a stratum of air of the thickness of 3000 feet is no longer distinguishable by the eye. During the dust-storms which frequently occur in India, the disk of the sun is seen of a blue colour; if small bodies are made to project their shadows on a white surface under such circumstances, the shadow is of an orange colour, that is complementary to blue. The transparency of the waters of the Ganges, the Brahmapootra, and the Indus, was tested by letting down a stone into them, which generally became invisible at a depth of from 12 to 15 centimetres (5 to 6 inches), showing that they are overcharged with earthy particles, for in the sea near Corfu a stone is visible to the depth of 50 feet, and in the seas under the tropics it remains visible at a depth of 30 feet.

GOSSIP OF THE WEEK.

MR. MURRAY announces for publication in two volumes, 'Letters, Despatches, and other Documents relating to India, by Field Marshal the Duke of Wellington,' edited by the present Duke. These papers have not been hitherto published, and have been only discovered since the Duke's death, and subsequent to the publication of the Wellington despatches, edited by Colonel Gurwood. Judging by the specimens which have long been before the public, these Indian papers will have great value and interest, especially now that all eyes are directed to what is passing in the East. Wellington was in India from 1798 to 1805. The patronage of his brother, the Earl of Mornington, afterwards the Marquis of Wellesley, Governor-General of India during that period, brought him early into important commands, in which he distinguished himself not less as a diplomatist than as a soldier. It has been remarked that his earliest letters and despatches bear the same stamp of energy, good sense, and conscientious devotion to his duty, by which his latest writings and all his actions were characterized. These Indian papers will doubtless bear out this statement, while they will form a remarkable contribution to the history of the Anglo-Indian empire.

It appears beyond a doubt that the new word "telegram" originated in India. The earliest instance of its use that has as yet been detected, is in a dispatch from Major Birch, secretary to the Governor-General, to General Hearsey, which bears date April 21, 1857, and says—"A telegram to the following effect has this day been transmitted to you." The contest respecting the orthodoxy of the word is still going on in the papers, but we have seen nothing to shake the opinion we expressed last week. Were it otherwise, we should still utterly repudiate the idea that a compound word adopted into English from a foreign language must of necessity be compounded according to the genius of the tongue to which it originally belonged. It is one

of the greatest beauties of the English language that it usually disfigures or decomposes foreign words, and makes them entirely its own. Who, for instance, would think of pronouncing *mantilla* in the Spanish fashion, or writing *dandilion*, *dent de lion*. In all instances, obvious utility and the common consent of educated persons should be sufficient to bring about the naturalization of any new word.

Lichfield, venerable for its literary as well as ecclesiastical associations, witnessed this week a modern educational ceremony in the inauguration of a free public library and museum. Dr. Law, the chancellor of the diocese, presided on the occasion, and delivered the address. It was at Lichfield that Johnson was born, and at Dame Oliver's school first learned his letters. The Johnsonian associations of the place are many and interesting; but besides these, literary men have respect for the place where Addison, and Garrick, and Dr. Wolaston, and Bishop Newton, and many other distinguished men, had their schooling. May the Lichfield Free Library help to give birth to or to nourish new native talent in the old cathedral city.

Christopher North, in the May-Day paper, in his *Recreations*, celebrates the speed of the well-known "Highflier" coach, with its "six in and twelve outsiders, driver and guard excluded,—rate of motion eleven miles an hour with stoppages!" "Why in the name of Heaven," exclaims Christopher, "are all people now-a-days in such haste and hurry? Is it absolutely necessary that one and all of this dozen and a half, Protestants and Catholics, alike anxious for emancipation, should be at a particular place at one particular moment of time out of the twenty-four hours given to man for motion and for rest?" Christopher lived to travel at the rate of fifty-five, instead of eleven miles an hour, with stoppages, and the risk of life was not greater than in the old coaching days. Yet sometimes dire catastrophes occur, and the recent instance of an express train getting off the rails of the Great Northern induced Lord Brougham to bring before the Birmingham Conference the question of excessive speed in railway travelling. Twenty-five miles an hour, or some other maximum, Lord Brougham thought, might be fixed by legislation. Accidents to express trains, already rare, might be still further diminished by this prohibition, but it is scarcely a subject to be regulated by law. The majority of passengers go at even less than the steady pace of twenty-five miles, and those who travel faster do so at their own risk. This seems a strange subject for the impetuous Lord Brougham to take up. It would not have been so in his early days, when canvassing Yorkshire, for instance, *calidus juvenis*. But his mind is as energetic and ubiquitous as ever, and this railway paper was a pleasant episode in the grave discussions and deliberations in which Lord Brougham took part at Birmingham.

The decision in the Westminster County Court this week, in the case of *Fonblanque v. Buckstone*, while involving a question of personal civility, also determines a general principle applicable to literary property. The facts are these. Mr. Fonblanque, junior, sent a manuscript play from Manchester to Mr. Buckstone, last December, in hope of its being accepted for the Haymarket Theatre. Receiving no acknowledgment of its having reached the manager, Mr. Fonblanque wrote four or five successive notes, without eliciting any reply. At last he wrote that he was coming up to London to see after his manuscript. Still no notice was taken of his communications, and towards the end of April, the disappointed and probably enraged author called at the Haymarket. Here he was told by Mr. Wyld, the treasurer of the theatre, that Mr. Buckstone had left directions for the play being handed to him when he called. Five or six times during the month of May he returned on the strength of that promise, but still the play was not forthcoming. At the end of the month he again wrote for an explanation, stating that he had lost much time in the vain attempt to recover his manuscript, and that he would commence legal proceedings if it were not restored to him on the

ensuing week. This threat at length brought out the missing play, which Mr. Fonblanque had been previously told had been lost. The plaintiff having issued, the legal proceedings were allowed to go on, Mr. Buckstone alleging in court that he defended the cause on public grounds. The judge, Francis Bayley, Esq., a sound and able lawyer, after hearing the cause, decreed that the plaintiff was entitled to damages for loss from detention of property, and the costs of the journey to London, and the amount of costs in the action. The loss from the detention was not easily proved, as the play, even if returned at first, might have proved of no benefit to the author elsewhere. One shilling only was decreed as damages for the detention. An appeal has been spoken of, but it would be of no avail, as a judgment in the Queen's Bench would be far more certain for the plaintiff than in the County Court. Usage is the principle on which the decision would turn. It has been always the usage for authors to send to managers their plays for approval. The counsel might show how Goldsmith and others have complained of the long time that elapsed before a work was decided upon, but contemptuous silence about even the receipt of a work is not allowable on the part of a manager. Editors of newspapers and periodicals advertise that they do not undertake to return manuscripts. If Mr. Buckstone and other managers had published a similar advertisement, Mr. Fonblanque might not have had ground for action, but the usage of the dramatic profession is on his side, in the absence of a special notice of the kind referred to. At all events, the result of the trial reads the lesson that civility as well as honesty is the best policy.

Very interesting archaeological discoveries have recently been made at Scarborough. A few days since, some very beautiful gold ornaments of the Anglo-Saxon period were offered for sale in the town. They came into the possession of Lord Londesborough, who, ascertaining that they had been found in the cliff at Seamer, gave orders that further researches should be instituted at the same spot. They resulted in the discovery of several gold ornaments of remarkable beauty; of several fragments of pottery and glass, and of a skeleton lying on its right side, close to which was a large bronze ring. The additional discovery of several large iron nails led to the inference of there having at one time been another body interred in a wooden coffin. This being the only instance of the discovery of gold ornaments in the north of England, it is regarded as established, not only that there was an early Anglo-Saxon settlement at Scarborough, but that it was one of considerable wealth and importance. A lecture on the subject has been given by Mr. T. Wright, to the members of the local Archaeological Society.

Mr. Layard, as appears from a private letter which has found its way into the newspapers, has determined to start for India, and institute a personal inquiry into the condition of the country. It is to be feared that Archaeology is not among the sciences which may hope to be benefited by his excursion. He expects to be back in May or June, and, characteristically keeping an eye to business, announces himself as quite at the service of any constituency that may do him the honour of electing him during his absence.

The Manchester people must have contracted a great taste for "art-treasures exhibitions." There is to be another held during the winter at the Royal Institution, the nucleus of which will be formed by the Soulaiges collection, but which will also include copious contributions from the Museum of Ornamental Art at Kensington, and most probably from other sources.

It is expected that Lord Brougham will shortly visit Liverpool, to inaugurate the newly-formed Queen's College.

Mr. John Inglis, Dean of the Faculty of Advocates, has been elected Lord Rector of King's College and the University of Aberdeen, an honorary office which, like that of the lord rectorship of Glasgow College, has been held by many of the most eminent public men of the day. The name of Mr. Inglis was not much known beyond the legal pro-

fession, until his speech in the case of *Madeleine Smith* gave him wider celebrity, but his accomplishments as a scholar, as well as his ability as a lawyer, are highly estimated in his own country.

The Rev. Dr. C. W. Russell, professor of ecclesiastical history in Maynooth College, has been advanced to the office of president of the college, vacant by the death of the late Very Rev. Dr. Renahan.

It is announced from Paris that the 'Memoirs' of M. Guizot (we made known some months ago that they were in preparation) are to be published in January next. It is certain that they will be read with eager interest, and it is believed that they will throw great light on the men and things of the period from 1830 to 1848, during which the eminent statesman and writer played a leading part on the political stage.

On the first of this month the Tyrolean poet, Michael Senn, died in Innsbruck, having not quite completed his sixtieth year. His life is one of those melancholy histories of wasted talents, disappointed hopes, and an embittered spirit, which the world, alas! knows too well, and has seen too often. He was endowed by nature with no common gifts, and as a youth was received into the best literary circles of Vienna. He was a friend of Schubert, for whom he composed many songs, among which we may mention the beautiful *Schwanen Lied*. The police looked with unfriendly eyes on this circle of clever and harmless friends. Senn was suspected and thrown into prison, where he lay for half a year. When once more set free he enlisted as a soldier, but the military career accorded little with his nature, and after some time he retired on a pension of 200 florins a year, about twenty pounds of English money. From this time his life was one series of misfortunes, which were in a great measure brought on him by his own soured temper. He sunk lower and lower, his best friends knew not how to please him, his life was blasted and desolate, and his noble intellect fell into decay. His poems were published in 1838, and amongst them are some that will not perish. A cycle of poems called 'Napoleon and Fortune' have been compared to Cyclopean walls, which giants have piled together of unheun blocks of granite. Rough and soured, lonely and almost forgotten as he was, Michael Senn's name will yet be remembered now he has passed away for ever.

From Upsal, in Sweden, we learn that that university has lost one of her most celebrated professors, in the person of Professor Swaneborghen, who has just died, at the age of fifty-one; also Rector Svedborn, the editor of the 'Astonblad,' one of the cleverest and best conducted newspapers of Stockholm, who has fallen a victim to the cholera at the above-named town. Herr Svedborn was a man of great learning and scientific knowledge, and his loss will be severely felt both in the political and literary world of his native country.

Professor Brasseur has been appointed rector (provost) of the University of Ghent, in the place of Monsieur Serure, who has retired, a victim of the late religious differences in Belgium.

The Emperor of Austria has presented five hundred florins to the town of Bassano, for the beautifying and restoring the church of San Vito in the city.

FINE ARTS.

The Poetical Works of Edgar Allan Poe. With Original Memoir. Sampson Low, Son, and Co.

Poems by William Cullen Bryant. Collected and Arranged by the Author. Sampson Low, Son, and Co.

Two renowned American poets, one living, the other dead, one gifted with the rarest original powers, the other inspired by some of the most refined thoughts and some of the sweetest melodies ever embodied in language, have here in England received a tribute due

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to their eminence and popularity. Illustrated poetry is a double luxury—a feast for eye and mind alike; the familiar verse reappears under new aspects of interest, and the intricacies or marvels of the draughtsman's designs are interpreted by the most appropriate words. That such volumes as these should have been produced in this country is highly creditable to our taste and enterprise, and will as such be, no doubt, duly appreciated by Americans. Of the works of Edgar Allan Poe, viewed critically, as examples of literary genius, it is not now our business to treat; and, indeed, their relative and peculiar position in the world of poetic art has long been established. Their merits and their shortcomings have often enough been displayed and commented upon: it is only with the new ornamental guise under which they appear to the world that we have now to do. In truth, a more elegant volume, externally and internally, has rarely appeared. The engravings are between fifty and sixty in number, besides vignettes, which are as abundant as the poems themselves. First, there is a portrait of the author, engraved by Mr. J. Cooper, after a daguerreotype; and then the celebrated 'Raven' poem comes in for its share of embellishment. This was the composition, as is well known, which, appearing in the 'American Review,' a New York monthly magazine, first drew the attention of the world to the author's singular and impressive powers. The designs which illustrate the 'Raven' are four, all by Mr. John Tenniel, and engraved as before by Mr. J. Cooper. The various attitudes of the man, as he listens to the mysterious knocking, as he watches the raven, and as he sits in his chair dreaming of the angels, are all firmly and literally described. At the end we find the mysterious bird perched upon the bust of Pallas. The exquisite poem 'Lenore' has two engravings. Mr. Pickersgill's figure of the dying lady,

"The life upon her yellow hair, but not within her eyes,
The life still there, upon her hair—the death upon her eyes."

is gracefully designed, not without the mournful expression, indicated by the poet, lingering in her features; and the crisp and delicate engraving by Mr. W. J. Linton is a gem of art. The group representing Lenore's ascending spirit is designed by Felix Darley, a name less familiar to us, and engraved by Mr. Cooper. A drawing of the *Coliseum*, by Jasper Cropsey, has been engraved by Mr. W. Linton. The attempt to render the silvery tone of moonlight, and the clear luminous shades of the darkest parts of the curved walls, will be duly appreciated by the critical observer. Next comes Mr. Birket Foster with his gorgeous woodland and mountain scenery. Spangled skies, rich foliage, glittering waves, and moonlit air, are scattered through his works with a profuse hand. We cannot but admire the boldness, mixed with judgment, which appears in many of these compositions. The distribution of light, though a little artificial, is always clever and effective, and the features of the scenery are natural, though carried sometimes to the verge of exaggeration. Nothing but constant recurrence to nature can maintain the interest of such an ambitious style as this; and it requires all the resources of memory and imagination to produce so large a succession of ornamental landscapes. The figures in this volume by Mr. Pickersgill are always good, and they have been in every instance engraved by Mr. Linton with the same skill

as in that above mentioned. There is a *Helen*, clad in white, reclining on a violet bank, a figure carrying a dead body, in illustration of the poem of 'Ulalume,' where the absence of muscular effort in the arms and legs is undoubtedly a defect, and a graceful figure of a woman about to lower her child from the balcony of a burning house, though again, perhaps, a little too unruffled, and making too slight an exertion. *Eulalie* is very pretty, and in a style quite suited to Mr. Pickersgill. The groups representing scenes from *Politian* show the advantage of a distinct groundwork of individual character upon which to found designs. They are firmer, truer, and more natural than the *Dream Land*, *Eldorado*, and others of that class. Sappho standing with feet upon the brink of the precipice, is another graceful but inanimate figure. It was not so she took the fatal leap. Mr. Cropsey, besides the ruin above mentioned, figures a gloomy lake, and two scenes of the *City in the Sea*, with considerable power; Mr. Perceval Skelton designs landscapes with architectural ruins. Finally, Mr. A. M. Madot is a figure draughtsman on a large scale, a good deal in the style of Millais, as for instance in the scenes from *Politian* whilst the group from *Tamerlane* is certainly excellent, and Mr. Madot's figures generally have been admirably reproduced by the various engravers. A memoir of Poe precedes the poems, from which we learn that such trifling matters as typographical errors used to throw him into an ecstasy of passion. This volume notwithstanding is not quite free from these flaws: we find "Læda" for "Leda," "Psyche" for "Psyche," and "Sybillic" for "Sybillic"—varieties which we think would have vexed the irritable poet amid the splendours of illustration and binding in which he appears before the world.

The volume in honour of Mr. Bryant is ornamented with scarcely less care and cost. The drawings are by Thomas Dalziel, Birket Foster, William Harvey, J. R. Clayton, J. Tenniel, F. R. Pickersgill, G. Duncan, William Harvey, Harrison Weir, and E. Duncan; the engravings all by the brothers Dalziel. From this array of names the character of the volume and its decorations will be easily understood. Mr. Pickersgill's *Ritzpah* is one of the finest and most expressive figure drawings. Then W. Harvey's *Apennines* is a noble pile of rocks and clouds, with an army in the gorge of a mountain valley. H. Weir excels in animals; and Thomas Dalziel has several clever designs, as *The Crowded Street*, *Consumption*, and *Fairest of the Rural Maids*, and several others. Indeed this artist's drawings display more thought and study than any of the rest. As a whole, though less brilliant in appearance than the preceding, this volume is admirably suited to the character of the poet whose writings it illustrates. A characteristic portrait of the writer is prefixed to the title-page.

Letters on Connoisseurship; or, the Anatomy of a Picture. By William Noy Wilkins. Chapman and Hall.

A SINCERE book on any subject, however trite in its maxims or obvious in its illustrations, is always welcome, and as such the above series of letters by Mr. W. N. Wilkins may be recommended to the reader. The author is himself an artist, whose works in landscape, being studies of scenery in Wales

and in the neighbourhood of Hampstead, have frequently of late years appeared on the walls of the British Institution and of the Society of British Artists. In the present instance, Mr. Wilkins has abandoned for a moment his easel for the pen, being moved with indignation at the high prices constantly given for worthless pictures, and the exaggerated values set upon mechanical skill, whilst the productions of original invention and real acquaintance with nature are neglected. The complaint which the writer makes is an old and a just one. People don't always take the physic they ought to take, or hear the sermons they ought to hear, or buy the pictures they ought to buy. In painting, as in other professions, too often the quack flourishes and is prosperous, whilst the true man is starving. False taste abounds either from imperfect faculties of observation, or the wilful following of unworthy guides. The labour of thought is overlooked, whilst the dexterity of the hand is applauded. Such are the errors that have constantly misled the multitude, and hung like a cloud over the path of the genuine artist. Against such errors the rules and remarks which Mr. Wilkins has here brought together are most justly pointed; but they are such probably as no amount of teaching will ever wholly dispel. Mr. Wilkins divides his subject into three portions—first, the spirit of a picture, or those qualities which are absolutely essential to every high work of art; secondly, the means by which this idea or notion is embodied; and thirdly, the various substances used in the manipulation and construction of the work. In treating of the first of these branches, the author condemns the practice of judging a picture according to its commercial value, instead of its meaning and spirit. He says—

"It is the fashion for most people, and for the dilettanti in particular, to regard art or a picture as an article of *virtù*, wholly apart from Nature or the object represented. They are for ever sinking the subject of the poem in their consideration of the metre—the intellectual in the technical; so that the faults of the artist, and the mechanical blemishes of the work (whether arising from the vehicles used or the lapse of time), come to be regarded as inseparable peculiarities in the works of the painter, both ancient and modern.

"When a picture, then, is presented to such minds, the idea that it excites is not that which the artist laboured to give, but is one of property and manipulation; until the object of all art, and the true spirit of the picture, is lost in the consideration of its texture, its pedigree, and the artist's name.

"Hence have arisen those mistaken notions of the value of a work of art, that have led to that dependence upon the dealer and commercial connoisseur, which it is the object of these letters to remove."

Still, with all deference to the writer, it must be admitted that the intellectual character of a painting, and its actual condition, are two different considerations, each in its way not unworthy the attention of the observer. In estimating the value of a picture, no dealer even of the slightest judgment would overlook the motives and subject of the work, whilst, on the other hand, he could not afford to neglect an examination of the state it was in. The writer's reproof seems to us to be, in this instance, a little misplaced. In the remarks that follow, upon the ideal character of good works of art, every reader will concur. The following passage will illustrate the writer's view:—

"Thus a good picture and a first-class work of art are not the same. The vulgar and the ignorant

will ever look to the drapery, the touch, and the texture, and finding those to their satisfaction, will buy and pronounce the work good. But the man of taste and education, of judgment and of genius, will seek for the motive or poem of the work, and its beauty, either of form or colour; wanting which, he will call it bad, and the painter a mechanic, but not a poet.

"It is true, however, that the faithful delineation of a scene in Nature will, apart from any story or accessories, often move us strongly, for the language of Nature is the highest of all poems. But it is rarely in the commonplace that she speaks, and hence we say that the delineation of a common subject is not worthy of the artist's labour, except for study or as a diagram.

"True also, for some time past, the desire for novelty among art-admirers has called out the mechanical powers of the painter on common subjects, in what has been termed 'Pre-Raphaelism'; but this has arisen as much from the reaction caused by previous carelessness in execution and abuse of generalizing, as well as from the tendency of people to be taken with what they are most familiar with. Academies and artists, moreover, value such art chiefly as examples and as practice; but the Venetian school of colour, and expression, still keeps its ascendancy, as it is also that art which the painter produces for himself in his studies, or when he keeps the poem of his work in view."

In the chapter on Concentration, the author cites, by way of illustration, a work of Jan Steen, *The Marriage Contract*, in which are to be noticed five groups of figures, including the principal one—each group having its own centre of interest, yet all bearing upon the main subject. "This," he adds, "is Nature." We confess that this remark rather surprises us, and seems to tell against the principle which the writer himself is inculcating. Surely it is the art of the master that has contrived so to arrange his figures as to produce an effect not always to be found in Nature herself. This we should say was Nature illustrated and exemplified by Art. Pictorial arrangement and expression are the remaining qualities, which the author classes as the algebra of art among the intellectual properties of a picture.

We are next led to consider the means by which the art idea is to be embodied under the several heads of colour, style, form, and chiaroscuro. Here the remarks of a practical painter become of much value. Speaking of colour, he forcibly points out the evils of coarse handling, as exemplified in the present state of some of Turner's best works.

"It is necessary, first, that the colours should be such as one would see in Nature under the same effects of light and shade and climate, and also that they should be put upon the canvas in such a manner (particularly in small works, which require to be viewed near the eye) that no particle of paint shall be visible at the proper distance from the picture; for if by unskillful handling or unnatural colouring we are reminded of the means by which the painter has produced his effect, the eye is no longer deceived, and the work passes from a painting to a highly finished or pretentious drawing. Unfortunately we have a very notable instance of this fact in the Turners in the Vernon Gallery. These pictures, loaded with colour and varnish, have become so incrustured with dirt, which, it appears, it is impossible to remove, that all deception is out of the question.

"The great landscape-painter has indeed left us an example of the evils of coarse handling and the necessity of painting smoothly, not only as one means of concealing the flat surface or picture-plane, but for the better preservation of the work. Time, moreover, has acted on the lead with which these works were painted, and has destroyed this deceptive charm to a still greater extent, many of them being now little more than wrecks of pic-

tures, having only their story and expression, and that marvellous truth of form and effect for which Turner was so pre-eminent."

The author is less borne out by traditionary teaching and critical opinion when he says—

"It is very common to hear people talk of the style of such and such an artist; to find them preferring one style, as it is called, to another, thereby acknowledging that they look upon pictures as pieces of furniture or articles of *virtù*.

"Now, strictly speaking, there is but one style, which is that which best imitates Nature.

"It is true that no two painters are alike in their works; but while those of Cuyt, Claude, and Turner are perfectly distinguishable, this difference does not arise from the style of each, but rather from the local colour and treatment caused by their predilection for certain effects in Nature by which they are known. To talk, therefore, or look for style, as such, in a work, is to go back a century, when Art was in its infancy in England; for Gainsborough and Wilson, and even Sir Joshua Reynolds, who had styles, would be thought unfinished and mannered now: Turner, too, is hardly free from the charge of paint.

"Manner of some kind or other we must always have, but there can be but one 'style,'—that by which Nature is best represented; where neither the mechanical peculiarities of fresco nor oil are visible—although we should adopt the excellences of both;—where the clear individuality of Nature alone shines through, in spite of canvas, paint, frame, and—that fruitful source of styles—the artist's own expression."

Yet it may be argued, that whilst one artist's conception of a subject is noble, and that of another mean; whilst one design is large and comprehensive, and another narrow and limited, styles must prevail. How, then, should we distinguish the school of Venice from that of Florence, or a modern French picture from a Flemish one? The remarks on form and chiaroscuro, on the other hand, are such as will meet with the hearty approbation of every lover of art.

Lastly, when the subject of the substances that are employed in painting comes to be considered, our author's observations are still more practical. He holds up to deserved reprobation the practice of painting a picture so as to last for three years only; he condemns the use of lead, from its tendency to after darkening; and shows how the vegetable and animal pigments, such as the lakes, gamboge, indigo, and Indian yellow, are changed by daylight alone in a few years. His opinion on the relative merits of the Turner and the Claudes in the National Gallery is thus given:—

"Only just compare the Turner in the National Gallery with the Claudes on either side, or with the Cuyts adjacent, and note the purity and brightness of the latter, compared with which the Turner looks dirty; the sky of the work having changed from the golden tone it once had, to the colour of yolk of egg, like a chromate of lead, as it is."

The following observations on the vehicle of painting also deserve extract:—

"Now, as Nature never exhibits either the flimsy washy patchings of an ordinary water-colour, or the greasy, glaring, and dark aspect of the ordinary conventional oil-painting, but rather the appearance of distemper or fresco, it follows that a work properly to resemble Nature should, if painted with oil, show no traces of the vehicle when finished, but should look more like a fresco seen under glass; or rather look like neither oil nor water, but having the power and force of the one with the light and aerial aspect of the other.

"The old master knew this; and when oil-painting was first adopted for its durability and freedom, the purest oil only was used, and that was so managed as to disappear from the surface

of the picture when the work was completed. This is now recognised by many of the modern school, of which Turner and the works of Mdlle. Rosa Bonheur offer illustrations. So that the public has come to regard this as a 'new style,' calling it 'chalky,' or any other name which interested calumny may think fit to bestow. This method, however, of painting with simple oil (poppy or nut) is not only that by which Nature can be best imitated, it is also the most durable. My own studies from Nature, painted in this manner, and with the simple earths and ochres, five years ago, are still bright and fresh; while those which I had painted with lead and the usual palette have visibly darkened, and will become still more so with time or gaseous agents."

The writer gives in continuation some excellent hints about varnishes, frames, on the lighting of galleries and hanging of pictures, to which we can do no more than refer the reader. He condemns the use of the word "National," as applied to a gallery composed almost entirely of works by foreign masters; and sets his face against mythological and classical subjects. The closing chapter of the book, however, will surprise and perhaps amuse the reader. Mr. Wilkins speaks of the social position or status of the artist, and has discovered that art and artists at the present day are at the same low level as literature once was, when the professors of the latter were compelled to "creep about," as he says, "to find themselves dishonourable graves;" and when actors and musicians were styled in acts of parliament "diverting vagabonds." "Art," he says, "is not respected; the rising artist has nothing to expect from the favourable consideration of others, and feels he must remain in the background if he fail to turn his talents at once to commercial account. Well, but is this so great a hardship after all? Ought it to be so grievous to the rising genius to discover that after all he must condescend to make money of his talents if he wishes to be famous? Why, the money he so much despises is the necessary medium of communication which measures the amount of his success, and gauges the degree of approbation his works have excited. The support thus forcibly extracted from the pockets of his fellow-countrymen, when fairly won, does him as much honour as an idle oration or a barren decoration, and is at least more useful. We think that not only the career of our great artists who have lived long enough for the busy world to appreciate their powers, but the actual comforts that spring from the commercial remunerations afforded by the English market, yield as much encouragement and promise, as much happiness to the artist in England, as in any other country of modern Europe.

Let the question be only practically put to our English painters, and we have little doubt of the result. Which would they prefer? The high prices and inglorious retirement of England, or the occasional honours and decorations of France and Germany? Evils and obstacles there unquestionably are which attend the course of the rising painter. Such are the temptations to abandon works of high aim for mere catchpenny daubs and trifles; and the tyranny which is sometimes exercised over young beginners by a certain class of dealers. In both these cases, however, the remedy is in the young artist's own hands. If he neglects high art for mere gain, or sells himself to a picture-jobber, it is almost invariably his own choice: he goes to ruin with his eyes open. We cannot, therefore, join Mr. Wilkins in his lament over the degenerate

social condition of artists in England. But in almost every other point we heartily commend his brief and sensible remarks: and we heartily wish him that success in his career which, from the candour and good feeling of these letters, he seems eminently to deserve.

The Naples papers mention a painting by Mancinelli, which is now being exhibited in the Museo Borbonico, and exciting much attention. It is a duplicate, made by the King's command, of a picture which was presented to the church in Tripoli; it represents the Virgin enthroned on clouds surrounded by choirs of angels, while below stand St. Francis and St. Rocco in an attitude of adoration. The duplicate copy is to be placed in the Royal Gallery in Naples.

The inauguration of the "Escalade" monument, a full description of which was given in the columns of the 'Literary Gazette' of the 16th July, took place in Geneva, in memory of the attack of the Savoyards on the republican town in 1602.

The collection of pictures bequeathed by Herr Tschager to the Ferdinandeum in Innsbruck proves of far more value than was at first supposed. Herr Tschager was known to have spent large sums of money in purchasing paintings, but as he never permitted any one to see the fruits of his speculations, there was no power of estimating their real worth. It turns out that amongst the pictures are some masterpieces of Teniers, Rubens, Rembrandt, Claude Lorraine, and Tintoretto, rich treasures for a gallery which as yet boasts nothing worth a connoisseur's notice.

A statue of Leonardo da Vinci is about to be set up at Milan, and it is estimated that it will cost nearly 2000*l*.

Herr Mohr, of Cologne, has just completed a most beautiful statue of the Virgin for the town of Düren, which is to be placed on a niche in the memorial which is about to be erected in that town. It is in the Gothic style of architecture, from the designs of Herr Schmidt.

The model for the monument to Platen is now finished, and stands in the studio of the sculptor Halbig, in Munich, ready to be cast in bronze. The funds for this monument, as well as those for the Goethe and Schiller group in Weimar, are greatly in arrear. Would it not be wiser to erect in Germany fewer public monuments, and to calculate their cost before they are begun?

The well-known Düsseldorf painter, Herr Kehren, has undertaken to finish the frescoes in the town-hall of Aix-la-Chapelle, which were begun many years ago (and which promised so much) by Alfred Rethel, who is now, and has been for the last two or three years, in a lunatic asylum on the banks of the Rhine, without hope of his ultimate recovery.

All who have visited the baths of Germany, Ems, Wiesbaden, Schwalbach, Carlsbad, Baden-Baden, &c., must be well acquainted with the bright, honest faces of the Tyrolean men and women who expose their wares for sale in the booth and arcades of these fashionable watering-places; amongst them none is more attractive than the wood-cutting in all its various forms. A great change has been effected in these articles, formerly confined to chamois hunting on bodkin cases, Swiss chalets, salad spoons and forks, small trays, and insignificant trifles which one bought as curiosities, and soon threw away when tired of them, or they got dirty or soiled. This year, however, the counters were covered with beautifully carved picture-frames and reading-desks, well executed crucifixes, and many small wooden statues, which were real works of art. We now read with pleasure that in Berchtesgaden, in the Tyrol, whence many of these people come, a school of design is about to be established for the express purpose of improving the wood-cutting, one of the most important branches of Tyrolean winter industry. Thus does art penetrate with its holy and civilizing influences into all parts of the world; even into the deep and snow-buried valleys of the Tyrol has her cry gone forth, and the laborious

industry of the peasants of these districts will, we hope, in future be enlisted under the banners of true art.

A new exhibition of Art is to be opened at Vienna, which is likely to make a great sensation. It is to be annual, and is to differ materially from the customary academy exhibitions in that town. Not only Austrian but German and foreign artists will be invited to send in their works. A yearly sum for the next three years of ten thousand florins will be expended in the purchase of the works of exhibitors, without any reference to their country, only to the superiority of their pictures. The prizes awarded by the Court will be reserved for native artists, and the "Reichel" prize, which has for the last few years been kept back, will again be given as usual; also the interest of the exhibition funds will be spent in prizes.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA.

On Monday evening commenced this winter's series of Concerts for the People in St. Martin's Hall. The programme was excellent, and the performances were generally good, but the attendance was not large, the hall being little more than half filled. This is generally the case, except when a name of extraordinary attractiveness is advertised for these occasions. When Miss Dolby or Mr. Sims Reeves appeared last season the room was overcrowded, but on most nights the expenses of the concert were not met, and the close of the season left the committee with debts above 200*l*., notwithstanding the large donations of benevolent persons for the encouragement of the scheme. The price of admission is too low, being only fourpence to the body of the hall. Those who care for a night of good music will pay more than that for the enjoyment. It is only by supplying an entertainment to compete with other public places of amusement that these concerts can become self-sustaining. Working men do not relish the half charitable and patronizing plan of subscriptions for their benefit, and few of the class attend for whom the concerts are principally intended.

The first of Mr. Hullah's winter performances of sacred music was given this week. Mendelssohn's *St. Paul* was the oratorio; the soprano solos by Mdlle. de Villar, who made her début in this country with much success last season; the contralto solos by Miss Palmer; tenor, Mr. Oldershaw; and bass, Mr. Allan Irving; the choruses by the members of Mr. Hullah's upper singing classes.

An adaptation of a French play has this week been produced with marked success at the Olympic, under the title of *Leading Strings*. The plot, which is extended through three acts, instead of two, as in the original, is simple and easily told. Mrs. Leveson (Mrs. Stirling) has been left, when still young and beautiful, a widow with an only son (Mr. S. Vining), to whose training she is affectionately devoted. Also under her charge is a young and fair ward, *Edith Belford*, (Miss Swanborough,) with whom, in due time, master *Frank* falls in love. The mother is at first blindly unconscious of what is going on, till enlightened by the revelations of *Binnings*, the old and confidential family butler (Mr. Addison). The match is dreaded by Mrs. Leveson, who knows that *Edith* has no true love for her son, but is actuated merely by selfish ambition, wealth and position being her objects. At first Mrs. Leveson attempts to forbid the match by authority, but as *Frank* shows symptoms of rebellion, the mother resolves to substitute stratagem for force, and the result of her scheme proves that she had her son even still in leading strings. The mother's consent is given to the marriage with *Edith*, on condition of the delay of a month, which they were to spend in the country remote from society and receiving no visitors. A wise moralist and philosopher has said that two young people under such circumstances would inevitably become lovers and be married, but Mrs. Leveson's practical observation of life and knowledge of her son led her to judge otherwise. Shut up from all other excitement, the company of

Edith gradually became monotonous and tiresome, and when longing for some event to break the tedium of the rural prison, *Flora Mackenzie* (Miss Wyndham), a pretty Scotch cousin, full of natural buoyancy and artless frankness, is first met accidentally, as he thought, but thrown in his way by the skilful mother. *Frank* falls in love with *Flora* at sight. He is relieved from his engagement to *Edith* by her grasping at an unexpected offer from a country baronet. It is by the excellence of the acting in every part that this slight piece owes its success. Mrs. Stirling gives a charming representation of the widow, with her fond anxiety lest her son should break from her leading strings. The part of the old butler is played by Mr. Addison with great humour, and the performances of Miss Wyndham, Miss Swanborough, and Mr. E. Vining are all that could be desired. The literary merit of the piece is small. In the first act the dialogue is tedious, and there are few points of the least wit or cleverness. Mr. Troughton has not even taken the pains to adapt the story to English ideas. He makes the mother oppose the match because *Edith* is of good family, though poor, and would therefore despise the son of a banker—not a likely idea in English society. The young lady in the last act talks of "charcoal or the river," modes of death both of which savour of the banks of the Seine. When a play is not professedly a translation, an English author might as well adapt the ideas as the language, the plot being the only attraction of the piece common to both countries.

LEARNED SOCIETIES.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

Physical Section.

Montreal, Aug. 14, 1857.

CAPTAIN WILKES, U.S.N., 'On the Zodiacal Light,' presented the results of the various observations made by the Exploring Expedition under his command. It was found that the light had not changed its character since its discovery, more than two centuries ago. The various theories of its origin—that it is derived from the atmosphere of the Sun; that it is a nebulous ring with the Sun as a centre; that it is a nebulous ring with the Earth as a centre; that it is a nebulous matter floating in space, from which showers of stars may be traced when the matter comes in contact with the Earth—were all disputed by Captain Wilkes, who has found it impossible to reconcile them with facts. He ascribes the phenomena to the light of the Sun falling perpendicular to the atmosphere of the Earth, in the plane of ecliptic, and illustrated his theory by comparing the effect to that produced by a single ray of the Sun entering a darkened room, making visible that particular portion thus illuminated.

Professor E. S. Snell, 'On the Vibrations of the Fall over the Dam at Holyoke, Mass.' "The fall of the water causes a rarefaction of the air behind, which, in turn, produces the pulsatory motion of the sheet. The vibrations vary with changes in the atmosphere, or in the depth of the water passing over the dam. At one observation I counted one hundred and thirty-seven, and at another two hundred and fifty-six vibrations in one minute. These are communicated to the land and the buildings in the neighbourhood, as has been shown by counting the vibrations of a window-sash, which gave the same result as a count at the base of the fall." Mr. Snell observed that his observations had been limited, but that he deemed the phenomenon worthy of further attention.

Rev. Thomas Hill submitted a chart of the annular eclipse to take place March 14, 1858, demonstrating that its beginning will be visible only from east of longitude 69 degrees west from Greenwich, and its close only from east of a line joining the western end of Lake Superior with the city of Mobile. Mr. Hill then offered some remarks upon a new form of arithmetical complements to be used in constructing a machine intended—unlike that of Leibnitz—"pro his qui olera aut pisces vendunt."

He has each digit marked upon the calculating machine, and, by its side, its difference from the highest digit. By this means it will be possible to subtract and divide by the same movements as those which add and multiply.

'Notes on the Measurement of a Base Line on Epping Plains, Washington county, Maine, for the Primary Triangulation of the Eastern Section of the Coast of the United States,' was the title of a paper read by Professor A. D. Bache, of Washington. He stated that the selection of this interior site—between Bangor and Calais—was rendered necessary, by the absence of any long beach on the coast of Maine. The measurement showed that the mean level of line is 257 feet above tide water.

Geological Section.

Professor J. W. Dawson, 'On the Varieties and Preservation of the Sternbergia,' exhibited several specimens of this fossil, and proved that it is formed of the pith of other plants, the wood of which decayed easily. Upon various observations carefully made at different times, he founded the supposition that the coal-fields of Eastern America were composed of the pith and bark of plants of the era of the coal formation; and that these plants are coniferous and rush-like.

Professor J. P. Lesley, of Pennsylvania, spoke upon the subject of the 'Tongued Flexures in the Brood Top Coal.' He presented a plan of a coal bed in which he found a series of these flexures more favourable for examination than any he had before heard of. Flexures have hitherto presented great difficulty to miners, who are unable to pursue their labours after reaching one of the points, it being impossible to determine the future course of the vein. Professor Lesley offered a solution of this problem, which he believed to be applicable in all cases.

Sir William E. Logan, 'On the Division of the Azoiic Rocks of Canada into Huronian and Laurentian,' argued the propriety of a division of the Azoiic rocks of Canada, and showed that the lithological character of one differed from the other; that the lower beds of the Huronian were composed of the ruins of the Laurentian; that the Huronian have a thickness of 10,000 feet, and are strongly marked by copper, rendering them of great economic importance; that their outcrop can be traced from Lake Huron to Lake Temiscaming; and that they appear over all Canada to the east of this out-crop, comprehending an area of 200,000 square miles.

Professor T. Sterry Hunt, 'On some Mineral Waters, and the Origin of Magnesian Rocks.' After alluding to the importance, in a geological point of view, of the deposits from mineral waters, he developed his theory of the origin of magnesian rocks such as dolomites and magnesites. He regarded these as produced by the action of carbonate of soda upon sea-water, which first eliminates the greater part of the lime in solution, and then in additional quantity gives precipitates of pure magnesian carbonate. Many mineral waters contain large amounts of carbonate of magnesia dissolved by the aid of other salts, and deposit the magnesia where the water is evaporated. He thus regards the carbonates of magnesia in rocks as formed from waters containing magnesian salts, either by direct precipitation by carbonate of soda, which may take place in deep seas, or by the conformation of magnesian waters just described in shallow basins. The facts of the occurrence of dolomite as the cement of a coralline limestone and of conglomerates, was also commented upon, and shown to furnish confirmation of this theory of the origin of magnesian sediments.

Professor George H. Cook, of Rutgers College, New Jersey, 'On a Subsidence of the Coast of New Jersey, and of some of the adjoining States.' The Professor adduced as arguments in favour of the supposition of a subsidence—first, the occurrence of remains of trees in place of their growth and below tide-level in Delaware Bay, on the Atlantic shore of New Jersey, and on the south shore of Long Island, quoting the statements of Professors Hitchcock and Dawson and Sir Charles Lyell; second, the fact that this subsidence is distinct

from a former subsidence and elevation which has left its mark along our shores. That the present subsidence is still going on he believes to be proved by the killing of trees by salt water; by the burying of islands in the uplands of salt marsh; and by its effects on the efficiency of mills located on tide water. He judges that the subsidence is at the rate of two feet a century.

Physical Section. Aug. 15, 1857.

Rev. George Jones, U.S.N., 'Observations on the Zodiacal Light at Quito, Ecuador, with Deductions.' These observations tended to overthrow the theory proposed by Capt. Wilkes. They were made from a hill 10,000 feet above the level of the sea, where the atmosphere was of uncommon brilliancy. Mr. Jones described the various appearances of the light, and deduced the following opinions:—1st, That the substance giving the light forms a complete circle across the sky; 2nd, That this circle is a great circle in the heavens, one hundred thousand miles from the earth, and 28° wide; and, taking its central light as a guide, was at the time of the observation in longitude 242°; 3rd, That it is a complete circle, distinct by itself, geocentric (*i. e.*, having the earth for its centre.) Mr. Jones gave an idea of the brightness of this substance by saying that if the light of the Milky Way be represented by an ascending scale from 0 to 20, the Zodiacal light will be represented by 6 to 7. He mentioned that the light is not observed by the inhabitants of Ecuador, nor was it seen by Humboldt. In relation to the above, Prof. Peirce, of Cambridge, affirmed that, judged by dynamical theories alone, the theory of Mr. Jones was the only one that could be sustained, and spoke warmly in support of it. Capt. Wilkes thought the annular character of the ring was not established by the arguments adduced. Prof. Olmstead, of New Haven, said that he had studied the subject for twenty years, and he agreed with the theory propounded by Mr. Jones.

Professor Bache, 'On the Winds of the Pacific Coast of the United States,' being the results of observations made at San Francisco and San Diego, in connexion with the Coast Survey. At those places westerly winds preponderated greatly, while on our coast easterly winds are most common; there the west winds are to the east as eight to one. The west winds increase in summer, and decrease in winter. The north-west wind prevails at Astoria and San Diego, and the south-west at San Francisco. The summer months are windy, and those of winter calm. March and September are our most windy months at the East, and are there the calmest.

Professor Henry, 'On the Physical Conditions Determinate of the Climate of the United States.' He spoke of the winds, and explained the preparations that have been made for observing and recording their direction, and stated that the results of their observations will greatly aid the philosopher in determining the laws and effects of the winds. The topographical character of the country was considered. He stated that the Apalachian range has no effect upon the atmosphere, because the wind is dry when it ascends, and, after expanding in the cold, contracts again during its descent, and is restored to its original temperature. On the Rocky Mountains, however, the temperature is far warmer than in the same latitude below, because the west wind, coming moist from the ocean, is condensed, and thus heat is evolved, so that the wind comes down upon the plains hot and dry. The power of their tornadoes was explained as owing to their course, which is onward and upward, not gyratory.

Dr. Wynne, of New York, 'On the Influence of the Gulf Stream upon the Climate of the Atlantic Coast of the United States.' He treated the subject hygienically, stating that the peculiar conformation of the bottom of the sea affects the Gulf Stream, and consequently the climate. The investigations of the Coast Survey show that there is a range of mountains on the bottom of the sea off the coast, maintaining a course similar to that of

the Apalachian chain. This configuration shows that the Gulf Stream is not a continuous stream of warm water, but is composed of warm bands, interspersed with cooler ones. From this was traced the salubrity of Newport and other watering places.

Professor G. C. Forshay, of Texas, 'Some of the Phenomena of the Texas Norther and Climatology.' His theory is, that this strong wind, often attaining a speed of forty miles per hour, comes, not from the north, but from a stratum of cold air, generally about three miles above the earth. "It often," said Professor Forshay, "strikes the earth 'butt-end foremost'; that is, it travels backward over the earth from south to north, generally at a rate of about twenty-five miles per hour, the southerly current of air maintaining its usual rate of speed of about forty miles per hour." He believes it to be a violent temporary trade wind—a sudden blast of air from the high dry south-west. In a discussion which ensued, on the "periodicity" of atmospheric conditions, it was generally admitted that storms, calms, and particular conditions of the air, often recur at regular intervals.

Professor A. D. Bache, of Washington, described the method of determining the longitude of Fernandina, Florida, by the transportation of chronometers to that place from Savannah. The best charts differ nine miles in the longitude of that island. Professor Bache and his assistants made about 3000 observations, with satisfactory results.

Professor Henry of the Smithsonian Institute, 'On some Phenomena of Ice.' He explained the creation of a remarkable crystal, which had been formed in the freezing of a pail of water, and protruded above the solid mass to a height of several inches. During freezing solidification takes place from the outside inwards; and in the case specified, the expanding mass of ice had forced the water upward in the centre, where it froze as it ascended, thus forming the crystal. Professor Henry observed that a solid mass of ice contracts like other solids, until finally it cracks asunder; this separation occurs in the place of the least resistance, which in lakes or ponds is the narrowest part. Sometimes it takes place in the ground, causing fissures, and when it happens beneath a building, the building itself is rent asunder. In the course of discussion, it appeared that Dr. Leconte, of South Carolina, had already presented a paper before a Charleston meeting, covering this whole subject of the mechanical laws of ice.

Geological Section.

Professor Dawson, of Montreal, 'On the Newer Pliocene Fossils of St. Lawrence Valley.' He exhibited and described several species of shells discovered in this valley, and stated that they were evidently littoral and cicalittoral. He had discovered no fresh-water shells among them. The highest locality in which they were found was on the mountain from which Montreal derives its name, some 470 feet above the level of the sea. The next most important elevation was on the Ottawa river, between one and two hundred feet above the level of the sea. From the elevation at which these shells were found, and the climate in which the analogous shells of the present time are found, Professor Dawson said that important inferences might be drawn as to the sea area and climate of the time when the shells were deposited. Dr. A. A. Gould, of Boston, thought that the opinion of Sir Charles Lyell, that the fossil shells of Beauport indicated a much more Arctic climate formerly than at present, could not be sustained. Colonel Whitlesey stated that in the region he had examined, extending from the eastern shore of Lake Erie to the Lake of the Woods, although the physical characters of the deposit resembled those of this region, yet the shells were all fresh-water shells, and the buried timber showed that the deposits had been of fresh water. Another member suggested that the deposits of the St. Lawrence Valley were formed from salt water, at a time when those referred to by Colonel Whitlesey had risen from salt water and were under salt water.

Colonel Charles Whittlesey, 'On the Fluctuations of Level in the North American Lakes.' He stated, as the result of the observations of more than twenty years upon the chain of North American lakes, that there were three kinds of fluctuation, which he had called the Secular, the Annual, and the Local. The Secular extends over a period of several years, being independent of the others. The Annual is such as the name indicates. The Local is a fitful and irregular rise or fall of the water, lasting for three or four minutes, the effects remaining for twenty-four hours; its cause is unknown, and it occurs when the water is perfectly placid. Colonel Whittlesey suggested that the cause might be magnetic, or magneto-electric, and urged the study of the phenomena. Professor Dewey observed that the fluctuations might be caused by tornadoes sweeping away large quantities of water from the shore, which rushes back to its level. Millard Fillmore stated that a fluctuation of fifteen feet occurred in 1844 at Buffalo.

Mr. T. Sterry Hunt, 'On the Parallelism between the Rocks of the Laurentian and Silurian Systems.' He traced a similarity between the felspathic rocks of the two series represented by the hyperites and labradorites in the one, and the euphotides and diorites in the other. He signalled the garnets and pyroxenes and diallage rocks of the two series, and showed that the serpentines, with some little difference in constitution, are common to both. The tales of the Silurian series are represented by the Bensellaerite of the Laurentian, a silicate of magnesia almost identical with talc. The absence of iron from many felspathic rocks, and the accumulation of this metal in the associated strata, which in the carboniferous period and more recent times is due to the influence of organic matter, lead us to infer that in these older rocks organic elements may equally have played a part. The altered Devonian and Jurassic strata offer similar mineralogical characters to those of the older series, and we may conclude that the chemical and physical conditions which presided at the formation of the oldest strata were essentially identical with those which have operated to produce the sedimentary rocks of more recent periods.

Professor Ramsay, of London, 'On the Physical Break, and the Break in the Succession of Life in the British Rocks.' He exhibited a chart, showing the successive fossiliferous strata found in Great Britain, marked with the number of genera and the number of species of fossils found in each, and also the number of genera and species which pass from any one system to the next above. He said that the extinction of the animal and vegetable species of fossils was not by any means owing to a sudden convulsion of nature, but to ordinary physical changes, such as are constantly in progress, even at the present time. In an interesting discussion that ensued, Professor Hitchcock inquired if any of the species of fossils mentioned ran through the whole series of fossiliferous rocks. Mr. Ramsay replied that such was the case with the Lingule, and as to the others he could not say. Several gentlemen spoke of the importance and high interest of the subject; and Professor Dawson closed the discussion for the time by alluding to the many difficulties the geologist has to encounter, not the least of which is that of being obliged to measure time by a scale whose subdivisions are yet undetermined.

Mr. T. Sterry Hunt, 'On General Considerations on the Metamorphism of Sedimentary Rocks.' Recent geological research has shown that the crystalline salts of various regions are stratigraphically identical with unaltered sediments of Silurian, Devonian, and even of later secondary age, although regarded as primitive rocks by the geologists of the last generation. Besides those sedimentary rocks of mechanical origin, we have others of organic origin, and finally deposits of limestone, dolomite, magnesite, carbonates and oxide of iron, and manganese. These chemical deposits are often mingled with those of mechanical origin. He regards the changes as having been produced by the action of small amounts of carbonate of soda

in aqueous solution, forming with the quartz silicate of soda, afterwards decomposed by the carbonate of lime, the yielding silicates of these bases reproducing the alkaline of soda. At the close of Mr. Hunt's remarks, Professors Horsford, Silliman, Chapman, and Caswell, and Mr. Ramsay, spoke in support of Mr. Hunt's views.

Dr. Berthold Seemann, of London, 'On the Parthenogenesis of Animals and Plants.' He stated that in some of the lower orders of animals cases of parthenogenesis had been discovered, and that in certain plants they were often to be met with.

Sir William E. Logan read a communication from Sir Roderick Murchison, who expressed regret at his necessary absence, and transmitted to the Association intelligence respecting the age of certain sub-crystalline rocks in the Highlands of Scotland, which he had been able to determine exactly during a recent visit, and which was found to correspond with his own opinion previously published.

Professor B. Silliman, of New Haven, described a 'New System of Dressing Metallic Ores.' After reducing the ore to a sufficient fineness by stamping, he proposes to subject it to the operation of a vessel shaped like an inverted cone, provided with an apparatus near the bottom for admitting and regulating a flow of water under hydrostatic pressure. Within this vessel is placed a plunger, shaped like two cones joined at the bases, of such size as to leave a space between it and the inside of the vessel. The produce of the stamping-mill is thrown into the top of the conical vessel, and water is admitted. The result is, that the lighter particles rise to the top, and flow over the sides of the vessel. The heavier particles, including the ore, flow out of a hole in the bottom, and are then treated substantially as in the Cornish method, though with certain improvements which add to its efficacy. Professor Silliman stated that by this machinery ore containing only one per cent. of valuable metal was so prepared that it was sent to market with forty per cent. of metal.

Sir William E. Logan, 'On the Probable Subdivision of the Laurentian Series of Canadian Rocks,' described a peculiar species of Laurentian limestone, which he thought sufficiently distinct to deserve a separate name. But what the name should be, he said he was not yet able to state. Professor J. D. Dana exhibited some Species of Trilobite from the Potsdam Sandstone of Keeseville, N. Y., not over an eighth of an inch in diameter. Their importance in geological investigation was discussed by Professor Hall and others. Professor Chapman submitted some notes on the Deposition of Metaliferous veins; on the subject of the Saltiness of the Sea; and on the Atomic Constitution and Crystalline Form as Principles for the Classification of Minerals.

Ethnological Sub-Section.

Professor J. P. Lesley, of Pennsylvania, 'On the Word Celt.' The Professor proposed to show that the word is not ethnological but mythological. Those who were conversant with the first great mysteries of mythology were designated by names from which he derived the word 'Celt.' The introduction of this subject opened a wide and interesting discussion.

Professor James D. Dana, of Yale College, 'On Thoughts on Species.'—A learned essay upon the questions—What is a species? Are species permanent? What is the basis of variations in species?

Professor Daniel Wilson, of Toronto, 'On the Supposed Uniformity of Cranial Type throughout all Varieties of the American Race.' He said that in common with other investigators he had accepted implicitly the investigations of Mr. Morton, but in the course of his investigations, and especially after an examination of twenty-eight skulls of Canadian aborigines, he had been led to place less faith in Mr. Morton's generalizations. Mr. Morton had stated that there was a recognizable uniformity of type among all the Anti-Columbian inhabitants of this country, with the exception of the Esquimaux. Professor Wilson, however, had found

several skulls near Detroit which approximated the elongated Esquimaux type, and he believed that the distinction between the Esquimaux and the other former inhabitants of this continent was less in the form of the cranium than in the configuration of the face. Several other gentlemen expressed the opinion that further investigation would tend to weaken the opinions of Mr. Morton.

Professor M. B. Anderson, of Rochester University, 'On the Classification of the Varieties of Man,' presenting successively some of the various theories respecting the number of the original species of man, one of which fixed the number as high even as sixty-three, and finally mentions the opinion of Professor Agassiz, who conceives man to be of one species, with a number of separate creations. He spoke of the difficulties that attended every theory, and, without advancing any of his own, suggested a discussion on the subject. He was not disposed fully to accept that of Agassiz, because of the objections against admitting miracles when any possible natural causes could be found.

Mathematical Section.

Aug. 18th, 1857.

Mr. E. S. Ritchie, of Boston, 'On an Improved Construction of Ruhmkorff's Induction Apparatus.' The improvements consist in making the strata of the wire in the secondary helix perpendicular instead of parallel with the axis; in making the insulation more perfect, and obviating, in a great measure, the danger of a discharge of the spark from one stratum to another; in substituting for De la Rive's interrupter, one which makes the breaks instantaneously; and in its being entirely under the operator's control. In the apparatus exhibited by Mr. Ritchie the length of wire is 60,000 feet, and he has obtained from it a spark of 10½ inches with a battery of four elements—the largest spark yet obtained in Europe having been 4½ inches. The original machine was the result of the researches of Faraday, Henry, and Fizeau, and gives a current of high intensity, with a quantity immensely greater than can be obtained from the electrical machine. Professor Henry observed that the machine indicates that electricity is only a polarization of matter, all of which is capable of one of the two forms of polarization—one by friction and one by magnetism; and the polarization of ponderable matter draws a line between electricity and magnetism. On a motion of Mr. Sherwin, of Boston, Mr. Ritchie was requested to give a further exhibition of the phenomena of his apparatus. Professor Lovering testified to the great superiority of the instrument over all others.

Professor D. Olmsted, of Yale College, 'On the Electrical Hypothesis of the Aurora Borealis.' He believes the aurora to be cosmical in its nature, or derived from matter connected with the planets. First, because of its great extent, often far above our atmosphere; second, because the same phenomenon occurs simultaneously in places widely different in longitude; third, from the velocity of its motion; fourth, from its periodicity, especially its secular periodicity, which may be considered as well established. Professor Olmsted thinks it may revolve around the sun, and that it is, perhaps, connected with the zodiacal light. He is disposed to doubt the arguments of those who ascribe an electrical origin to the phenomenon, because it prevails in latitudes where the amount of electricity is least. On the motion of Dr. Boynton, Mr. Coffin, of Boston, was permitted to make a statement in relation to the influence of the aurora upon the Boston Fire Alarm Telegraph, during the fall of 1853, when the operators were able to complete the circuit without the aid of a battery, so long as the aurora was in view. Professor Olmsted admitted that the aurora has magnetic properties, although, in his belief, it is not created by electricity. Dr. Hare, of Philadelphia, defended his own theory against the opinions of Professor Olmsted.

Professor A. D. Bache, of Washington, read a paper 'On the Heights of the Tides of the Atlantic Coast of the United States.' A comparison of the heights of the tides along the coast leads him to

form three groups of figures, corresponding with three great bays on the coast, the tides being least at the outermost extremities of the bays, and greatest at the heads. The first of these bays, which he calls the "Southern," extends from Cape Florida, where the tide is 1.3 feet in height, to Cape Hatteras, where it is 2 feet, with Port Royal, 7 feet, as the head. The second extends from Cape Hatteras to Nantucket, 1.2 feet, with Sandy Hook, about 5 feet, as the head. The third includes Massachusetts Bay and the Bay of Fundy, or from Nantucket to Cape Sable, 8 feet, with its vertex at the head of the Bay of Fundy, 36 feet.

Professor Stephen Alexander, of Princeton, N. J., 'On Special Harmonies of the Distances and the Periodical Times of the Bodies composing the Solar System, and the Physical Hypothesis to which this State of Things seems to be Referable.' His hypothesis is, that the division of the spheroidal ring of nebulous matter about the sun took place at a period far antecedent to the period fixed upon by Laplace.

Natural History and Geography.

The first subject considered was Professor Peirce's discovery, that the principal lines of the continents are arcs of great circles, tangent to the polar circles, with but three prominent exceptions, two of which are tangent to the tropical circles. These two are the North coast of South America, and the Islands of the Pacific. The facts of Professor Peirce's discovery seem to indicate that the sun had an influence in the formation of continents. It is evident that while the sun is in the vicinity of the solstices—for about two-thirds of the year—the circles which are tangent to the polar circles separate the illuminated from the unilluminated portion—or the portion under the influence of the Sun from that deprived of its influence—and that they become the circles of the greatest variations of the temperature. So that, when the first foundation of solids in cooling began, they would be the lines that separated the frozen from the melted portions of the surface; and consequently, as the solidification increased, would become the lines of natural cleavage. Then, with the shrinking of the solid, it would be along some one of these lines that the first separation of continent from ocean would occur; and this separation, once commenced, would always remain, because the bottom of the ocean, from the cold water descending to it, would be cooling rapidly, as also the tops of the continent, from the cold air constantly rising. These coast lands are necessarily the hottest parts of the surface, and therefore those are the parts of the shell where the crust is thinnest. With the first crusting of the surface, in the process of shrinking, these lines would give the direction to the currents of the ocean, and thus the laws of the beautiful theory of the winds and currents of the ocean, expounded in the Physical Section by Professor Henry of the Smithsonian Institute, would be developed. These currents consist principally of the primitive Gulf Stream, the Atlantic, and the corresponding current of the Pacific Ocean. The current of the Atlantic would act to keep the surface of Europe in a more open state than any other part of the earth, and would occasion the peculiar irregularity which is now observed in the mountains of that country. Professor Peirce said: "In reference to the charge with which certain papers have recently been laden, of my having appropriated the labours of another person, I must be permitted to state that there is no allusion to the facts which I have brought before the Association, either in his published book or in his memoir, which has also been printed at full length, and which every one may read and judge of for himself, and which no one can now steal. With regard to his speculations, they are so opposed to my own, that if he is right I am altogether wrong, and if I am right he is wrong; and I have no desire to claim his wild conglomeration of vagaries, which seem to me worthy only of the institution to which he would have consigned one of the most venerated and beloved of our members." Professor Guyot said that he was hardly prepared to admit that the

coincidence referred to was more than accidental. Some years since he had grouped the reliefs of the world into a series of slopes and counter-slopes at right angles to each other. According to his theory, the triangle was the fundamental form of the continent.

Professor E. N. Horsford, of Cambridge, described a 'New Method of Determining the Commercial Value of Saltpetre.' The process consists of igniting a weighed quantity of common saltpetre with sal ammoniac, which is a chloride of the alkaline base, in place of the nitrate. The presence of chlorine involves the necessity of a specific determination. The advantage of the process lies in its shortness.

Professor Hubbard, of Dartmouth College, gave 'Notices of the Occurrence of Chrysolite in Basalt'—found in a basaltic boulder in Thetford, Vermont.

Professor A. H. Worthen, of Iowa, spoke of the 'Occurrence of Sharks' Teeth in the Drift of the Mississippi,' and suggested that they were from tertiary deposits still existing in that vicinity—a view in which several members concurred.

Two papers by T. Antisell, entitled 'Contributions to the Geology of California,' and 'The Gadsden Purchase,' were read by Col. Whittlesey. They contained an interesting account of the physical features and geological conditions of the regions mentioned.

Professor Guyot made some remarks 'On the Physical Structure of the Continent of Africa.' He said it was evident that the interior of Southern Africa is an elevated valley, between the two series of high lands on the east and west coasts. The northern part of Africa is traversed by mountains running from east to west, with slopes and high lands between. The continent is therefore the result of two series of elevations, one running north and south, and the other east and west, making of Africa a kind of compound continent. Prof. Guyot said that Africa was the result of two upheavals, like other continents, and was a type of all of them, showing that the triangle was the primitive form of continents.

Professor James Hall, of Albany, read a paper 'On the Direction of the Ancient Currents of Deposition, and the Source of Materials in the Older Palaeozoic Rocks, with Remarks on the Origin of the Appalachian Chain of Mountains.' Prof. Hall argued that the Laurentian chain has a trend but slightly different from that of the Appalachian. He thought both the series of rocks were the result of the deposits of a great current from the north-east to the south-west.

Mr. T. Sterry Hunt spoke of 'Some Intrusive Rocks in the District of Montreal.' He said that in this vicinity, in addition to dikes, there are three varieties of trap, of unique chemical composition, which he described.

Professor Lesley read a paper 'On the Comparative Sections of the Coal Measures in Kentucky, and Eastern and Western Pennsylvania.' He said that we might place upon the record of this year's progress in geology the identification of the coal beds of Pennsylvania, Kentucky, and Ohio.

Sub-Section of Ethnology.

The first subject taken up was 'The Ancient Mining Operations of Lake Superior,' by Colonel Charles Whittlesey, of Cleveland, Ohio, who showed that in very ancient times mining was carried on extensively in Point Keweenaw, on Lake Superior. He described the plan of the operations, the implements used, &c., all of which were of a rude character. The tools, it was thought, suggested that the people who used them subsequently migrated to Mexico, similar ones, in many respects, having been found in the latter country. Colonel Whittlesey believes that the period when these mining operations were in progress was about 1200 years ago, and that they extended through a period of 500 years.

Professor Wilson, 'On the Collection of Indian Paintings and Antiquities Exhibited by Mr. Paul Kane.' He stated that these paintings, now on exhibition at Bonsecour Hall, and possessing great ethnological interest, were brought from Toronto, in the hope that they would be of interest to the

Association. The paintings are to be shown and explained to-day, in connexion with various relics and curiosities, before this Section, by Mr. Kane, the artist. Professor Wilson described, in anticipation, a number of the pictures, and spoke of their ethnological value. They will be more fully discussed in to-day's session.

Dr. J. H. McIlvaine read a paper 'On the Behistun Inscription,' exhibiting a paragraph of that inscription in the original characters, explaining the nature of the language, and the method of translating, and showing the simplicity and regularity of the system. The Behistun inscription was put up by Darius, who came to the Persian throne about 520 years before Christ. It is placed upon a large limestone rock, 1700 feet high, near the western frontiers of Media, on the great caravan route eastward from Babylonia. This rock is called the "Place of God," and was, a thousand years before the time of Darius, regarded with reverence. Diodorus Siculus relates that Semiramis engraved inscriptions on it, but they have disappeared, if they ever were made.

Those of Darius, however, remain in perfection. They are elevated 300 feet from the ground, in a place so difficult of access, that a commission sent from Prussia to take a copy found it impossible. Rawlinson, however, succeeded not only in copying it, but in translating it. Rawlinson says that it is unequalled in perfection and beauty by any inscription in the world. Its situation has protected it from the iconoclastic fury of the Mohammedans, for nothing but artillery could destroy it. Here Darius sent the record of his history, in his three principal languages of the vast empire over which he ruled, together with his own likeness, and those of certain of his followers. Dr. McIlvaine translated, word for word, the paragraph he exhibited of the inscription, giving interesting information of the construction of the language, showing its relation with other ancient languages, also explaining the method of deciphering. Dr. McIlvaine concluded by reading the entire translation of the tablet, which is of the greatest historic interest, but too long for publication at this time. He concluded with the following tribute to Rawlinson:—"Here, then, a man of Anglo-Saxon speech, twenty years ago, sat down before a stone, where an Assyrian king had engraved his ideas in a language long forgotten. He had studied the writing closely, until, by degrees, light dawned, and at length a full illumination was thrown over the subject. Now men shook hands, as it were, across a gulf of a hundred generations, and it was found that this ancient king was but the elder brother of our own race, derived from ancestors who once lived on the same plains, and fed their flocks on the same wilds of Central Asia, and spoke the same language as did our own forefathers."

Professor L. H. Morgan, 'On the Laws of Descent among the Iroquois,' was read by one of the members. It was an exposition of the peculiar and intricate marital relations between tribes of the Iroquois. It was shown that the laws of descent accompanied the women, who, even in intermarriage, always remained of their original tribe, and their descendants by these laws were of the tribe to which the women belonged. The paper also gave accounts of the governments among the Indian tribes, and argued that no Indian monarchical government has ever existed among them—notwithstanding the narrations of the Spanish invaders.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.—K. L., M. A. B., T. S. S. N.—received.

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